Programming in Haskell

Graham Hutton, University of Nottingham
Cambridge University Press, 2007

A weekly series of freely available video lectures on the book is being given by Erik Meijer on Microsoft's Channel 9 starting in October 2009. These lectures are proving amazingly popular. Pick up a copy of the book and join in the fun with Erik's great lectures!

Acknowledgement:
Hutton's slides for his book are used in this lecture on introducing Haskell (modulo a few adaptations).
What is a Functional Language?
What is a Functional Language?

Opinions differ, and it is difficult to give a precise definition, but generally speaking:

- Functional programming is a style of programming in which the basic method of computation is the application of functions to arguments;

- A functional language is one that supports and encourages the functional style.
Example

Summing the integers 1 to 10 in Java:

```java
total = 0;
for (i = 1; i ≤ 10; ++i)
    total = total+i;
```

The computation method is variable assignment.
Example

Summing the integers 1 to 10 in Haskell:

\[
\text{sum } [1..10]
\]

The computation method is function application.
A Taste of Haskell

\[
f([]) = []
\]

\[
f(x:xs) = f \ ys \ ++ \ [x] \ ++ \ f \ zs
\]

where

\[
ys = [a \mid a \leftarrow xs, \ a \leq x]
\]

\[
zs = [b \mid b \leftarrow xs, \ b > x]
\]
Historical Background
Historical Background

1930s:

Alonzo Church develops the lambda calculus, a simple but powerful theory of functions.
Historical Background

1950s:

John McCarthy develops **Lisp**, the first functional language, with some influences from the lambda calculus, but retaining variable assignments.
1960s:

Peter Landin develops ISWIM, the first pure functional language, based strongly on the lambda calculus, with no assignments.
1970s:

John Backus develops FP, a functional language that emphasizes higher-order functions and reasoning about programs.
Historical Background

1970s:

Robin Milner and others develop ML, the first modern functional language, which introduced type inference and polymorphic types.
Historical Background

1970s - 1980s:

David Turner develops a number of lazy functional languages, culminating in the Miranda system.
Historical Background

1987:

An international committee of researchers initiates the development of Haskell, a standard lazy functional language.
2003:

The committee publishes the Haskell 98 report, defining a stable version of the language.
First Steps in Haskell
Haskell systems


★ Major option: GHC

[http://haskell.org/ghc/download.html](http://haskell.org/ghc/download.html)
Starting Haskell

Use command line.
Start the Haskell shell.

$ ghci
GHCi, version 6.10.4: http://www.haskell.org/ghc/  :? for help
Loading package ghc-prim ... linking ... done.
Loading package integer ... linking ... done.
Loading package base ... linking ... done.
Prelude>
The > prompt means that the Haskell system is ready to evaluate an expression.

For example:

> 2+3*4
14

> (2+3)*4
20

> sqrt (3^2 + 4^2)
5.0
The Standard Prelude

The library file Prelude.hs provides a large number of standard functions. In addition to the familiar numeric functions such as + and *, the library also provides many useful functions on lists.

Select the first element of a list:

```haskell
> head [1,2,3,4,5]
1
```
Remove the first element from a list:

\[
> \text{tail} \ [1,2,3,4,5] \\
[2,3,4,5]
\]

Select the \(n\)th element of a list:

\[
> [1,2,3,4,5]!!2 \\
3
\]

Select the first \(n\) elements of a list:

\[
> \text{take} \ 3 \ [1,2,3,4,5] \\
[1,2,3]
\]
Remove the first n elements from a list:

> drop 3 [1,2,3,4,5]
[4,5]

Calculate the length of a list:

> length [1,2,3,4,5]
5

Calculate the sum of a list of numbers:

> sum [1,2,3,4,5]
15
Calculate the product of a list of numbers:

```
> product [1,2,3,4,5]
120
```

Append two lists:

```
> [1,2,3] ++ [4,5]
[1,2,3,4,5]
```

Reverse a list:

```
> reverse [1,2,3,4,5]
[5,4,3,2,1]
```
In **mathematics**, function application is denoted using parentheses, and multiplication is often denoted using juxtaposition or space.

\[ f(a, b) + c \, d \]

Apply the function \( f \) to \( a \) and \( b \), and add the result to the product of \( c \) and \( d \).
In Haskell, function application is denoted using space, and multiplication is denoted using \(*\).

As previously, but in Haskell syntax.
Moreover, function application is assumed to have higher priority than all other operators.

\[ f(a) + b \]

Means \((f(a)) + b\), rather than \(f(a + b)\).
Examples

Mathematics

f(x)
f(x, y)
f(g(x))
f(x, g(y))
f(x)g(y)

Haskell

f x
f x y
f (g x)
f x (g y)
f x * g y
Haskell Scripts

★ As well as the functions in the standard prelude, you can also define your own functions;

★ New functions are defined within a script, a text file comprising a sequence of definitions;

★ By convention, Haskell scripts usually have a .hs suffix on their filename. This is not mandatory, but is useful for identification purposes.
My First Script

When developing a Haskell script, it is useful to keep two windows open, one running an editor for the script, and the other running Hugs.

Start an editor, type in the following two function definitions, and save the script as `test.hs`:

```haskell
double x  = x + x
quadruple x = double (double x)
```
Leaving the editor open, in another window start up the Haskell interpreter with the new script:

```
% ghci test.hs
```

Now both Prelude.hs and test.hs are loaded, and functions from both scripts can be used:

```
> quadruple 10
40

> take (double 2) [1,2,3,4,5,6]
[1,2,3,4]
```
Leaving the interpreter open, return to the editor, add the following two definitions, and resave:

```haskell
factorial n = product [1..n]
average ns = sum ns `div` length ns
```

Note:

- \( z \) div is enclosed in back quotes, not forward;
- \( z \times f \ y \) is just syntactic sugar for \( f \times y \).
The interpreter does not automatically detect that the script has been changed, so a `reload` command must be executed before the new definitions can be used:

```hs
> :reload
Reading file "test.hs"

> factorial 10
3628800

> average [1,2,3,4,5]
3
```
Naming Requirements

★ Function and argument names must begin with a lower-case letter. For example:

myFun     fun1     arg_2     x'

★ By convention, list arguments usually have an \textit{s} suffix on their name. For example:

xs     ns     nss
The Layout Rule

In a sequence of definitions, each definition must begin in precisely the same column:
The layout rule avoids the need for explicit syntax to indicate the grouping of definitions.

\[
a = b + c
\]
where
\[
b = 1
c = 2
d = a \times 2
\]

\[
a = b + c
\]
where
\[
\{ b = 1;
c = 2 \}
d = a \times 2
\]

**implicit grouping**

**explicit grouping**
### Useful Interpreter Commands

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Command</th>
<th>Meaning</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>:load name</td>
<td>load script name</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>:reload</td>
<td>reload current script</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>:edit name</td>
<td>edit script name</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>:edit</td>
<td>edit current script</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>:type expr</td>
<td>show type of expr</td>
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<td>?:</td>
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</tr>
<tr>
<td>:quit</td>
<td>quit interpreter</td>
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</table>
Exercises

(1) Try out all previous examples using the Haskell interpreter.

(2) Fix the syntax errors in the program below, and test your solution using the interpreter.

\[
N = a \text{ 'div' length xs}
\]

where

\[
a = 10
\]

\[
xs = [1,2,3,4,5]
\]
(3) Show how the library function `last` that selects the last element of a list can be defined using the functions introduced in this lecture.

(4) Can you think of another possible definition?

(5) Similarly, show how the library function `init` that removes the last element from a list can be defined in two different ways.
Common Types
What is a Type?

A type is a name for a collection of related values. For example, in Haskell the basic type `Bool` contains the two logical values: `False` and `True`. 
Type Errors

Applying a function to one or more arguments of the wrong type is called a **type error**.

\[
> 1 + \text{False}
\]

Error

1 is a number and False is a logical value, but + requires two numbers.
Types in Haskell

★ If evaluating an expression e would produce a value of type t, then e has type t, written

\[ e :: t \]

★ Every well formed expression has a type, which can be automatically calculated at compile time using a process called type inference.
All type errors are found at compile time, which makes programs safer and faster by removing the need for type checks at run time.

In the Haskell interpreter, the :type command calculates the type of an expression, without evaluating it:

```haskell
> not False
True
> :type not False
not False :: Bool
```
Basic Types

Haskell has a number of basic types, including:

- **Bool** - logical values
- **Char** - single characters
- **String** - strings of characters
- **Int** - fixed-precision integers
- **Integer** - arbitrary-precision integers
- **Float** - floating-point numbers
List Types

A list is sequence of values of the same type:

\[
[\text{False}, \text{True}, \text{False}] :: [\text{Bool}]
\]
\[
[\text{'a'}, \text{'b'}, \text{'c'}, \text{'d'}] :: [\text{Char}]
\]

In general:

\([t] \) is the type of lists with elements of type \(t\).
Note:

The type of a list says nothing about its length:

\[
[\text{False, True}] :: [\text{Bool}]
\]

\[
[\text{False, True, False}] :: [\text{Bool}]
\]

The type of the elements is unrestricted. For example, we can have lists of lists:

\[
[['a'], ['b', 'c']] :: [[[\text{Char}]]]
\]
Tuple Types

A **tuple** is a sequence of values of different types:

\[
\begin{align*}
(False, True) & :: (\text{Bool}, \text{Bool}) \\
(False, 'a', True) & :: (\text{Bool}, \text{Char}, \text{Bool})
\end{align*}
\]

In general:

\((t_1, t_2, ..., t_n)\) is the type of n-tuples whose ith components have type \(t_i\) for any \(i\) in 1...n.
Note:

The type of a tuple encodes its size:

\[
\text{(False, True)} :: (\text{Bool}, \text{Bool}) \\
\text{(False, True, False)} :: (\text{Bool}, \text{Bool}, \text{Bool})
\]

The type of the components is unrestricted:

\[
\text{('a', (False, 'b'))} :: (\text{Char}, (\text{Bool}, \text{Char})) \\
\text{(True, ['a', 'b'])} :: (\text{Bool}, [\text{Char}])
\]
Hints and Tips

★ When defining a new function in Haskell, it is useful to begin by writing down its type;

★ Within a script, it is good practice to state the type of every new function defined;
Exercises

(1) What are the types of the following values?

- ['a', 'b', 'c']
- ('a', 'b', 'c')
- [(False, '0'), (True, '1')]
- ([False, True], ['0', '1'])
Functions types
Function Types

A function is a mapping from values of one type to values of another type:

\[
\text{not} :: \text{Bool} \rightarrow \text{Bool}
\]

\[
\text{isDigit} :: \text{Char} \rightarrow \text{Bool}
\]

In general:

\[
t_1 \rightarrow t_2 \text{ is the type of functions that map values of type } t_1 \text{ to values to type } t_2.
\]
Note:

★ The arrow $\rightarrow$ is typed at the keyboard as $->$.

★ The argument and result types are unrestricted. For example, functions with multiple arguments or results are possible using lists or tuples:

```
add        :: (Int,Int) → Int
add (x,y)  = x+y

zeroto     :: Int → [Int]
zeroto n   = [0..n]
```
Curried Functions

Functions with multiple arguments are also possible by returning functions as results:

\[
\text{add'} :: \text{Int} \to (\text{Int} \to \text{Int})
\]

\[
\text{add'} x \ y = x+y
\]

add’ takes an integer x and returns a function \(\text{add'} x\). In turn, this function takes an integer y and returns the result x+y.
Note:

add and add’ produce the same final result, but add takes its two arguments at the same time, whereas add’ takes them one at a time:

```
add :: (Int,Int) → Int
add' :: Int → (Int → Int)
```

Functions that take their arguments one at a time are called **curried** functions, celebrating the work of Haskell Curry on such functions.
Functions with more than two arguments can be curried by returning nested functions:

\[
\text{mult} \quad :: \quad \text{Int} \rightarrow (\text{Int} \rightarrow (\text{Int} \rightarrow \text{Int}))
\]

\[
\text{mult} \; x \; y \; z = x \cdot y \cdot z
\]

mult takes an integer \(x\) and returns a function \(\text{mult} \; x\), which in turn takes an integer \(y\) and returns a function \(\text{mult} \; x \; y\), which finally takes an integer \(z\) and returns the result \(x \cdot y \cdot z\).
Why is Currying Useful?

Curried functions are more flexible than functions on tuples, because useful functions can often be made by partially applying a curried function.

For example:

\[
\text{add' 1 :: Int} \rightarrow \text{Int}
\]

\[
\text{take 5 :: [Int]} \rightarrow \text{[Int]}
\]

\[
\text{drop 5 :: [Int]} \rightarrow \text{[Int]}
\]
Currying Conventions

To avoid excess parentheses when using curried functions, two simple conventions are adopted:

The arrow \( \rightarrow \) associates to the right.

\[
\text{Int} \rightarrow \text{Int} \rightarrow \text{Int} \rightarrow \text{Int}
\]

Means \( \text{Int} \rightarrow (\text{Int} \rightarrow (\text{Int} \rightarrow \text{Int})) \).
As a consequence, it is then natural for function application to associate to the left.

\[ \text{mult } x \ y \ z \]

Means ((mult x) y) z.

Unless tupling is explicitly required, all functions in Haskell are normally defined in curried form.
Polymorphic Functions

A function is called **polymorphic** ("of many forms") if its type contains one or more type variables.

\[
\text{length} :: [a] \rightarrow \text{Int}
\]

for any type \(a\), \(\text{length}\) takes a list of values of type \(a\) and returns an integer.
Note:

Type variables can be instantiated to different types in different circumstances:

```haskell
> length [False,True]
2

> length [1,2,3,4]
4
```

Type variables must begin with a lower-case letter, and are usually named a, b, c, etc.
Many of the functions defined in the standard prelude are polymorphic. For example:

\[
\begin{align*}
\text{fst} & \:: (a,b) \rightarrow a \\
\text{head} & \:: [a] \rightarrow a \\
\text{take} & \:: \text{Int} \rightarrow [a] \rightarrow [a] \\
\text{zip} & \:: [a] \rightarrow [b] \rightarrow [(a,b)] \\
\text{id} & \:: a \rightarrow a
\end{align*}
\]
Overloaded Functions

A polymorphic function is called **overloaded** if its type contains one or more class constraints.

\[
\text{sum} :: \text{Num } a \Rightarrow [a] \rightarrow a
\]

for any numeric type \(a\), \text{sum} takes a list of values of type \(a\) and returns a value of type \(a\).
Note:

Constrained type variables can be instantiated to any types that satisfy the constraints:

\[
\begin{align*}
&> \text{sum } [1,2,3] \\
&6
\end{align*}
\]

\[
\begin{align*}
&> \text{sum } [1.1,2.2,3.3] \\
&6.6
\end{align*}
\]

\[
\begin{align*}
&> \text{sum } ['a','b','c'] \\
&\text{ERROR}
\end{align*}
\]

\[
\begin{align*}
&a = \text{Int} \\
&a = \text{Float}
\end{align*}
\]

Char is not a numeric type
Haskell has a number of type classes, including:

- **Num** - Numeric types
- **Eq** - Equality types
- **Ord** - Ordered types

For example:

\[ (+) \colon \text{Num}\ a \Rightarrow a \to a \to a \]
\[ (==) \colon \text{Eq}\ a \Rightarrow a \to a \to \text{Bool} \]
\[ (<) \colon \text{Ord}\ a \Rightarrow a \to a \to \text{Bool} \]
Hints and Tips

★ When stating the types of polymorphic functions that use numbers, equality or orderings, take care to include the necessary class constraints.
Exercises

(1) What is the type of the following value?

[tail, init, reverse]
(2) What are the types of the following functions?

second xs = head (tail xs)
swap (x,y) = (y,x)
pair x y = (x,y)
double x = x*2
palindrome xs = reverse xs == xs
twice f x = f (f x)
Defining Functions
Conditional Expressions

As in most programming languages, functions can be defined using conditional expressions.

\[
\text{abs} :: \text{Int} \rightarrow \text{Int} \\
\text{abs } n = \text{if } n \geq 0 \text{ then } n \text{ else } -n
\]

abs takes an integer \( n \) and returns \( n \) if it is non-negative and \(-n\) otherwise.
Conditional expressions can be nested:

```haskell
signum :: Int → Int
signum n = if n < 0 then -1 else
          if n == 0 then 0 else 1
```

Note:

In Haskell, conditional expressions must **always** have an else branch, which avoids any possible ambiguity problems with nested conditionals.
Guarded Equations

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

\[
\text{abs } n \mid n \geq 0 \quad = n \\
\mid \text{otherwise} \quad = -n
\]
Guarded equations can be used to make definitions involving multiple conditions easier to read:

\[
\text{signum } n \mid n < 0 \quad = -1 \\
\mid n == 0 \quad = 0 \\
\mid \text{otherwise} \quad = 1
\]

Note:

The catch all condition \text{otherwise} is defined in the prelude by otherwise \text{ = True}.
Pattern Matching

Many functions have a particularly clear definition using pattern matching on their arguments.

\[
\begin{align*}
\text{not} & \quad :: \text{Bool} \rightarrow \text{Bool} \\
\text{not False} &= \text{True} \\
\text{not True} &= \text{False}
\end{align*}
\]

not maps False to True, and True to False.
Functions can often be defined in many different ways using pattern matching. For example

\[
(\&\&) \quad :: \text{Bool} \rightarrow \text{Bool} \rightarrow \text{Bool}
\]

\[
\begin{align*}
\text{True} \ \&\& \ \text{True} &= \text{True} \\
\text{True} \ \&\& \ \text{False} &= \text{False} \\
\text{False} \ \&\& \ \text{True} &= \text{False} \\
\text{False} \ \&\& \ \text{False} &= \text{False}
\end{align*}
\]

can be defined more compactly by

\[
\begin{align*}
\text{True} \ \&\& \ \text{True} &= \text{True} \\
_ \ \&\& \ _ &= \text{False}
\end{align*}
\]
However, the following definition is more efficient, because it avoids evaluating the second argument if the first argument is False:

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

Note:

The underscore symbol _ is a **wildcard** pattern that matches any argument value.
Patterns are matched **in order**. For example, the following definition always returns False:

\[
_ \land_ \land _ = \text{False}
\]

\[
\text{True} \land \text{True} = \text{True}
\]

Patterns may not **repeat** variables. For example, the following definition gives an error:

\[
b \land b = b
\]

\[
_ \land_ \land _ = \text{False}
\]
List Patterns

Internally, every non-empty list is constructed by repeated use of an operator (:) called “cons” that adds an element to the start of a list.

\[ [1,2,3,4] \]

Means \( 1:(2:(3:(4:[]))) \).
Functions on lists can be defined using \( x:xs \) patterns.

\[
\begin{align*}
\text{head} &:: [a] \rightarrow a \\
\text{head} (x:_\,) &= x \\
\text{tail} &:: [a] \rightarrow [a] \\
\text{tail} (_:xs) &= xs
\end{align*}
\]

head and tail map any non-empty list to its first and remaining elements.
x:xs patterns only match non-empty lists:

> head []
Error

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

head x:_ = x
Integer Patterns

As in mathematics, functions on integers can be defined using $n+k$ patterns, where $n$ is an integer variable and $k>0$ is an integer constant.

pred :: Int → Int
pred (n+1) = n

pred maps any positive integer to its predecessor.

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Note:

n+k patterns only match integers $\geq k$.

> pred 0
Error

n+k patterns must be parenthesised, because application has priority over +. For example, the following definition gives an error:

pred n+1 = n

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Lambda Expressions

Functions can be constructed without naming the functions by using lambda expressions.

\[ \lambda x \to x + x \]

the nameless function that takes a number \( x \) and returns the result \( x + x \).
Note:

- The symbol \( \lambda \) is the Greek letter lambda, and is typed at the keyboard as a backslash \. 

- In Haskell, the use of the \( \lambda \) symbol for nameless functions comes from the lambda calculus, the theory of functions on which Haskell is based.
Why Are Lambda's Useful?

Lambda expressions can be used to give a formal meaning to functions defined using currying.

For example:

\[
\text{add } x \; y = x + y
\]

means

\[
\text{add} = \lambda x \rightarrow (\lambda y \rightarrow x + y)
\]
Lambda expressions are also useful when defining functions that return functions as results.

For example:

\[
\text{const} :: a \rightarrow b \rightarrow a \\
\text{const } x \_ = x
\]

is more naturally defined by

\[
\text{const} :: a \rightarrow (b \rightarrow a) \\
\text{const } x = \lambda \_ \rightarrow x
\]
Lambda expressions can be used to avoid naming functions that are only referenced once.

For example:

\[
\text{odds } n = \text{map } f [0..n-1] \quad \text{where} \quad f x = x^2 + 1
\]

can be simplified to

\[
\text{odds } n = \text{map } (\lambda x \rightarrow x^2 + 1) [0..n-1]
\]
Infix vs. prefix

An operator written *between* its two arguments can be converted into a curried function written *before* its two arguments by using parentheses.

For example:

> 1+2
3

> (+) 1 2
3
Sections

We are also allowed to include one of the arguments of the operator in the parentheses.

For example:

\[
\begin{align*}
&> (1+) 2 \\
&> (1+2) 1
\end{align*}
\]

In general, if \( \oplus \) is an operator then functions of the form \((\oplus)\), \((x \oplus)\) and \((\oplus y)\) are called sections.
Why Are Sections Useful?

Useful functions can sometimes be constructed in a simple way using sections. For example:

- \((1+)\) - successor function
- \((1/)\) - reciprocation function
- \((*2)\) - doubling function
- \((/2)\) - halving function
Exercises

(1) Consider a function `safetall` that behaves in the same way as `tail`, except that `safetall` maps the empty list to the empty list, whereas `tail` gives an error in this case. Define `safetall` using:

(a) a conditional expression;
(b) guarded equations;
(c) pattern matching.

Hint: the library function `null :: [a] → Bool` can be used to test if a list is empty.
(2) Give three possible definitions for the logical or operator (||) using pattern matching.

(3) Redefine the following version of (&&) using conditionals rather than patterns:

\[
\begin{align*}
\text{True} \&\& \text{True} &= \text{True} \\
_ \&\& _ &= \text{False}
\end{align*}
\]

(4) Do the same for the following version:

\[
\begin{align*}
\text{True} \&\& b &= b \\
\text{False} \&\& _ &= \text{False}
\end{align*}
\]
List Comprehensions
Set Comprehensions

In mathematics, the comprehension notation can be used to construct new sets from old sets.

\[ \{ x^2 \mid x \in \{1\ldots5\} \} \]

The set \( \{1,4,9,16,25\} \) of all numbers \( x^2 \) such that \( x \) is an element of the set \( \{1\ldots5\} \).
Lists Comprehensions

In Haskell, a similar comprehension notation can be used to construct new lists from old lists.

\[ [x^2 | x \leftarrow [1..5]] \]

The list \([1,4,9,16,25]\) of all numbers \(x^2\) such that \(x\) is an element of the list \([1..5]\).
Note:

- The expression \( x \leftarrow [1..5] \) is called a **generator**, as it states how to generate values for \( x \).

- Comprehensions can have **multiple** generators, separated by commas. For example:

  ```haskell
  > [(x,y) | x ← [1,2,3], y ← [4,5]]
  [(1,4),(1,5),(2,4),(2,5),(3,4),(3,5)]
  ```
Changing the order of the generators changes the order of the elements in the final list:

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

Multiple generators are like nested loops, with later generators as more deeply nested loops whose variables change value more frequently.
Dependant Generators

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

\[
\{(x,y) \mid x \leftarrow [1..3], y \leftarrow [x..3]\} 
\]

The list \([(1,1),(1,2),(1,3),(2,2),(2,3),(3,3)]\) of all pairs of numbers \((x,y)\) such that \(x,y\) are elements of the list \([1..3]\) and \(y \geq x\).
Using a dependant generator we can define the library function that *concatenates* a list of lists:

```haskell
concat :: [[a]] → [a]
concat xss = [x | xs ← xss, x ← xs]
```

For example:

```haskell
> concat [[1,2,3],[4,5],[6]]
[1,2,3,4,5,6]
```

We iterate over the lists of lists, and then over the elements of each list in turn, and finally we append all those elements.
Guards

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

\[ x \mid x \leftarrow [1..10], \text{even } x \]

The list \([2,4,6,8,10]\) of all numbers \(x\) such that \(x\) is an element of the list \([1..10]\) and \(x\) is even.
Using a guard we can define a function that maps a positive integer to its list of factors:

```haskell
factors :: Int → [Int]
factors n = [x | x ← [1..n], n `mod` x == 0]
```

For example:

```
> factors 15
[1,3,5,15]
```
A positive integer is prime if its only factors are 1 and itself. Hence, using factors we can define a function that decides if a number is prime:

\[
\text{prime} :: \text{Int} \to \text{Bool} \\
\text{prime } n = \text{factors } n == [1, n]
\]

For example:

\[
> \text{prime } 15 \\
\text{False} \\
> \text{prime } 7 \\
\text{True}
\]
Using a guard we can now define a function that returns the list of all **primes** up to a given limit:

```haskell
primes :: Int → [Int]
primes n = [x | x ← [2..n], prime x]
```

For example:

```
> primes 40
[2,3,5,7,11,13,17,19,23,29,31,37]
```
The Zip Function

A useful library function is `zip`, which maps two lists to a list of pairs of their corresponding elements.

```haskell
zip :: [a] → [b] → [(a,b)]
```

For example:

```haskell
> zip ['a','b','c'] [1,2,3,4]
[('a',1),('b',2),('c',3)]
```

We do not show the definition of `zip` at this point.
Using zip we can define a function returns the list of all pairs of adjacent elements from a list:

\[
\text{pairs} :: [a] \rightarrow [(a,a)]
\]

\[
\text{pairs } xs = \text{zip } xs \ (\text{tail } xs)
\]

For example:

\[
> \text{pairs [1,2,3,4]}
\]

\[
[(1,2),(2,3),(3,4)]
\]
Using pairs we can define a function that decides if the elements in a list are sorted:

```haskell
sorted :: Ord a ⇒ [a] → Bool
sorted xs = and [x ≤ y | (x,y) ← pairs xs]
```

For example:

```
> sorted [1,2,3,4]
True
> sorted [1,3,2,4]
False
```
Using zip we can define a function that returns the list of all positions of a value in a list:

```
positions :: Eq a ⇒ a → [a] → [Int]
positions x xs = [i | (x',i) ← zip xs [0..n], x == x']
where n = length xs - 1
```

For example:

```
> positions 0 [1,0,0,1,0,1,1,0]
[1,2,4,7]
```
String Comprehensions

A string is a sequence of characters enclosed in double quotes. Internally, however, strings are represented as lists of characters.

"abc" :: String

Means ['a','b','c'] :: [Char].
Because strings are just special kinds of lists, any polymorphic function that operates on lists can also be applied to strings. For example:

```haskell
> length "abcde"
5

> take 3 "abcde"
"abc"

> zip "abc" [1,2,3,4]
[('a',1),('b',2),('c',3)]
```
Similarly, list comprehensions can also be used to define functions on strings, such as a function that counts the lower-case letters in a string:

```haskell
lowers :: String → Int
lowers xs = length [x | x ← xs, isLower x]
```

For example:

```
> lowers "Haskell"
6
```
Exercises

(1) A triple \((x,y,z)\) of positive integers is called **pythagorean** if \(x^2 + y^2 = z^2\). Using a list comprehension, define a function

\[
\text{pyths} :: \text{Int} \rightarrow [(\text{Int},\text{Int},\text{Int})]
\]

that maps an integer \(n\) to all such triples with components in \([1..n]\). For example:

\[
> \text{pyths} 5 \\
[(3, 4, 5), (4, 3, 5)]
\]
A positive integer is **perfect** if it equals the sum of all of its factors, excluding the number itself. Using a list comprehension, define a function

```haskell
perfects :: Int → [Int]
```

that returns the list of all perfect numbers up to a given limit. For example:

```haskell
> perfects 500
[6,28,496]
```
The **scalar product** of two lists of integers $xs$ and $ys$ of length $n$ is given by the sum of the products of the corresponding integers:

$$
\sum_{i=0}^{n-1} (xs_i \times ys_i)
$$

Using a list comprehension, define a function that returns the scalar product of two lists.
Recursive Functions
Introduction

As we have seen, many functions can naturally be defined in terms of other functions.

\[
\text{factorial} :: \text{Int} \rightarrow \text{Int} \\
\text{factorial} \ n = \text{product} \ [1..n]
\]

factorial maps any integer \( n \) to the product of the integers between 1 and \( n \).
Expressions are evaluated by a stepwise process of applying functions to their arguments.

For example:

\[
\text{factorial} \ 4 \\
= \ \\
\text{product} \ [1..4] \\
= \ \\
\text{product} \ [1,2,3,4] \\
= \ \\
1 \times 2 \times 3 \times 4 \\
= \ \\
24
\]
Recursive Functions

In Haskell, functions can also be defined in terms of themselves. Such functions are called recursive.

factorial 0   = 1
factorial (n+1) = (n+1) * factorial n

factorial maps 0 to 1, and any other positive integer to the product of itself and the factorial of its predecessor.
For example:

\[
\text{factorial 3} = 3 \times \text{factorial 2} = 3 \times (2 \times \text{factorial 1}) = 3 \times (2 \times (1 \times \text{factorial 0})) = 3 \times (2 \times (1 \times 1)) = 3 \times (2 \times 1) = 3 \times 2 = 6
\]
Note:

- factorial 0 = 1 is appropriate because 1 is the identity for multiplication: $1 \times x = x = x \times 1$.

- The recursive definition **diverges** on integers $< 0$ because the base case is never reached:

```haskell
> factorial (-1)
Error: Control stack overflow
```
Why is Recursion Useful?

- Some functions, such as factorial, are simpler to define in terms of other functions.

- As we shall see, however, many functions can naturally be defined in terms of themselves.

- Properties of functions defined using recursion can be proved using the simple but powerful mathematical technique of induction.
Recursion on Lists

Recursion is not restricted to numbers, but can also be used to define functions on lists.

\[
\text{product} :: [\text{Int}] \rightarrow \text{Int}
\]

\[
\text{product} \; [] = 1
\]

\[
\text{product} \; (n:ns) = n \times \text{product} \; ns
\]

product maps the empty list to 1, and any non-empty list to its head multiplied by the product of its tail.
For example:

\[
\text{product } [2,3,4] = 2 \times \text{product } [3,4] = 2 \times (3 \times \text{product } [4]) = 2 \times (3 \times (4 \times \text{product } [])) = 2 \times (3 \times (4 \times 1)) = 24
\]
Using the same pattern of recursion as in product we can define the \texttt{length} function on lists.

\begin{verbatim}
length :: [a] \rightarrow \text{Int}
length [] = 0
length (_:xs) = 1 + length xs
\end{verbatim}

\texttt{length} maps the empty list to 0, and any non-empty list to the successor of the length of its tail.
For example:

\[
\begin{align*}
\text{length } [1,2,3] &= 1 + \text{length } [2,3] \\
&= 1 + (1 + \text{length } [3]) \\
&= 1 + (1 + (1 + \text{length } [])) \\
&= 1 + (1 + (1 + 0)) \\
&= 3
\end{align*}
\]
Using a similar pattern of recursion we can define the reverse function on lists.

reverse :: [a] → [a]
reverse [] = []
reverse (x:xs) = reverse xs ++ [x]

reverse maps the empty list to the empty list, and any non-empty list to the reverse of its tail appended to its head.
For example:

```
```
Multiple Arguments

Functions with more than one argument can also be defined using recursion. For example:

Zipping the elements of two lists:

\[
\text{zip} :: [a] \to [b] \to [(a,b)] \\
\text{zip} [] \; _ \; = [] \\
\text{zip} \; _ \; [] \; = [] \\
\text{zip} \; (x:xs) \; (y:ys) \; = (x,y) : \text{zip} \; xs \; ys
\]
Remove the first \( n \) elements from a list:

\[
\text{drop} :: \text{Int} \rightarrow [a] \rightarrow [a]
\]

\[
\text{drop} \ 0 \ xs = xs
\]

\[
\text{drop} \ (n+1) \ [] = []
\]

\[
\text{drop} \ (n+1) \ (_:xs) = \text{drop} \ n \ xs
\]

Appending two lists:

\[
(++) :: [a] \rightarrow [a] \rightarrow [a]
\]

\[
[] ++ ys = ys
\]

\[
(x:xs) ++ ys = x : (xs ++ ys)
\]
**Quicksort**

The *quicksort* algorithm for sorting a list of integers can be specified by the following two rules:

The empty list is already sorted;

Non-empty lists can be sorted by sorting the tail values ≤ the head, sorting the tail values > the head, and then appending the resulting lists on either side of the head value.
Using recursion, this specification can be translated directly into an implementation:

```haskell
qsort :: [Int] → [Int]
qsort [] = []
qsort (x:xs) =
    qsort smaller ++ [x] ++ qsort larger
where
    smaller = [a | a ← xs, a ≤ x]
    larger = [b | b ← xs, b > x]
```

Note:

This is probably the simplest implementation of quicksort in any programming language!
For example (abbreviating qsort as q):

q [3,2,4,1,5]

q [2,1] ++ [3] ++ q [4,5]

q [1] ++ [2] ++ q []


Exercises

(1) Without looking at the standard prelude, define the following library functions using recursion:

Decide if all logical values in a list are true:

```
and :: [Bool] → Bool
```

Concatenate a list of lists:

```
concat :: [[a]] → [a]
```
Produce a list with n identical elements:

\[
\text{replicate} :: \text{Int} \to \text{a} \to [\text{a}]
\]

Select the nth element of a list:

\[
(!!) :: [\text{a}] \to \text{Int} \to \text{a}
\]

Decide if a value is an element of a list:

\[
\text{elem} :: \text{Eq a} \Rightarrow \text{a} \to [\text{a}] \to \text{Bool}
\]
Define a recursive function

\[
\text{merge} :: [\text{Int}] \rightarrow [\text{Int}] \rightarrow [\text{Int}]
\]

that merges two sorted lists of integers to give a single sorted list. For example:

\[
> \text{merge} [2,5,6] [1,3,4] \\
[1,2,3,4,5,6]
\]
(3) Define a recursive function

\[ \text{msort} :: [\text{Int}] \rightarrow [\text{Int}] \]

that implements \textit{merge sort}, which can be specified by the following two rules:

i) Lists of length \( \leq 1 \) are already sorted;
ii) other lists can be sorted by sorting the two halves and merging the resulting lists.
Higher-Order Functions
Introduction

A function is called **higher-order** if it takes a function as an argument or returns a function as a result.

```haskell
twice :: (a -> a) -> a -> a

twice f x = f (f x)
```

twice is higher-order because it takes a function as its first argument.
Why Are They Useful?

- **Common programming idioms** can be encoded as functions within the language itself.

- **Domain specific languages** can be defined as collections of higher-order functions.

- **Algebraic properties** of higher-order functions can be used to reason about programs.
The Map Function

The higher-order library function called `map` applies a function to every element of a list.

\[
\text{map} : (a \rightarrow b) \rightarrow [a] \rightarrow [b]
\]

For example:

\[
> \text{map} (+1) [1,3,5,7] \\
[2,4,6,8]
\]
The map function can be defined in a particularly simple manner using a list comprehension:

\[
\text{map } f \ x s = [f \ x \mid x \leftarrow x s]
\]

Alternatively, for the purposes of proofs, the map function can also be defined using recursion:

\[
\begin{align*}
\text{map } f [] &= [] \\
\text{map } f \ (x:xs) &= f \ x : \text{map } f \ xs
\end{align*}
\]
The Filter Function

The higher-order library function `filter` selects every element from a list that satisfies a predicate.

\[
\text{filter} :: (a \rightarrow \text{Bool}) \rightarrow [a] \rightarrow [a]
\]

For example:

\[
> \text{filter even [1..10]}\\
[2,4,6,8,10]
\]
Filter can be defined using a list comprehension:

\[
\text{filter } p \text{ xs} = [x \mid x \leftarrow \text{xs}, p \, x]
\]

Alternatively, it can be defined using recursion:

\[
\begin{align*}
\text{filter } p \, [] & = [] \\
\text{filter } p \, (x:\text{xs}) & = \\
& | p \, x = x : \text{filter } p \, \text{xs} \\
& | \text{otherwise } = \text{filter } p \, \text{xs}
\end{align*}
\]
The Foldr Function

A number of functions on lists can be defined using the following simple pattern of recursion:

\[
\begin{align*}
f \; [] & = v \\
f \; (x:xs) & = x \oplus f \; xs
\end{align*}
\]

f maps the empty list to some value v, and any non-empty list to some function \( \oplus \) applied to its head and f of its tail.
For example:

- \( \text{sum} \, [] = 0 \)
- \( \text{sum} \, (x:xs) = x + \text{sum} \, xs \)

- \( \text{product} \, [] = 1 \)
- \( \text{product} \, (x:xs) = x \times \text{product} \, xs \)

- \( \text{and} \, [] = \text{True} \)
- \( \text{and} \, (x:xs) = x \land \text{and} \, xs \)
The higher-order library function \texttt{foldr} (fold right) encapsulates this simple pattern of recursion, with the function $\oplus$ and the value \texttt{v} as arguments.

For example:

\begin{align*}
\text{sum} &= \text{foldr} \ (\ + \ ) \ 0 \\
\text{product} &= \text{foldr} \ (\ast\ ) \ 1 \\
\text{or} &= \text{foldr} \ (\|\|) \ \text{False} \\
\text{and} &= \text{foldr} \ (\&\&\ ) \ \text{True}
\end{align*}
Foldr itself can be defined using recursion:

foldr :: (a → b → b) → b → [a] → b

foldr f v [] = v

foldr f v (x:xs) = f x (foldr f v xs)

However, it is best to think of foldr non-recursively, as simultaneously replacing each (:) in a list by a given function, and [] by a given value.
For example:

\[
\text{sum} \ [1,2,3] \\
= \\
\text{foldr} \ (+) \ 0 \ [1,2,3] \\
= \\
\text{foldr} \ (+) \ 0 \ (1:2:(3:[])) \\
= \\
1+(2+(3+0)) \\
= 6
\]

Replace each (:) by (+) and [] by 0.
For example:

\[
\text{product } [1,2,3] = \text{foldr } (*) 1 [1,2,3] = \text{foldr } (*) 1 (1:(2:(3:[]))) = 1*(2*(3*1)) = 6
\]

Replace each (:) by (*) and [] by 1.
Other Foldr Examples

Even though foldr encapsulates a simple pattern of recursion, it can be used to define many more functions than might first be expected.

Recall the length function:

\[
\text{length} :: [a] \rightarrow \text{Int}
\]

\[
\text{length} \; [] = 0
\]

\[
\text{length} \; (_:\text{xs}) = 1 + \text{length} \; \text{xs}
\]
For example:

\[
\text{length } [1,2,3] = \text{length } (1:(2:(3:[]))) = 1+(1+(1+0)) = 3
\]

Hence, we have:

\[
\text{length } = \text{foldr } (\lambda_\_ n \rightarrow 1+n) \ 0
\]

Replace each (: ) by \( \lambda_\_ n \rightarrow 1+n \) and [] by 0.
Now recall the reverse function:

\[
\text{reverse \[\] } = \[] \\
\text{reverse \((x:x)\) } = \text{reverse \(x:xs\) } + + [x]
\]

For example:

\[
\text{reverse \[1,2,3\] } = \text{reverse \((1:(2:(3:[])))\) } = ((([] + + [3]) + + [2]) + + [1]) = [3,2,1]
\]

Replace each \((:)\) by \(\lambda x \; xs \rightarrow xs + + [x]\) and \([]\) by \([]\).
Hence, we have:

\[
\text{reverse} = \text{foldr} (\lambda x \, xs \rightarrow xs ++ [x]) []
\]

Finally, we note that the append function (++) has a particularly compact definition using foldr:

\[
(++ \, ys) = \text{foldr} (:) \, ys
\]

Replace each (:) by (:) and [] by ys.
Why Is Foldr Useful?

- Some recursive functions on lists, such as sum, are simpler to define using foldr.

- Properties of functions defined using foldr can be proved using algebraic properties of foldr, such as fusion and the banana split rule.

- Advanced program optimisations can be simpler if foldr is used in place of explicit recursion.
Other Library Functions

The library function \((.)\) returns the composition of two functions as a single function.

\[
(\cdot) :: (b \to c) \to (a \to b) \to (a \to c)
\]

\[
f \cdot g = \lambda x \to f (g x)
\]

For example:

\[
\text{odd :: Int} \to \text{Bool}
\]

\[
\text{odd} = \text{not} \cdot \text{even}
\]
The library function \texttt{all} decides if every element of a list satisfies a given predicate.

\begin{verbatim}
all :: (a -> Bool) -> [a] -> Bool
all p xs = and [p x | x <- xs]
\end{verbatim}

For example:

\begin{verbatim}
> all even [2,4,6,8,10]
True
\end{verbatim}
Dually, the library function \texttt{any} decides if at least one element of a list satisfies a predicate.

\[
\text{any} :: (a \rightarrow \text{Bool}) \rightarrow [a] \rightarrow \text{Bool}
\]

\[
\text{any } p \text{ xs } = \text{or } [p \; x \mid x \leftarrow \text{xs}]
\]

For example:

\[
> \; \text{any } \text{isSpace} \; "abc \; def"
\]

\[
\text{True}
\]
The library function \texttt{takeWhile} selects elements from a list while a predicate holds of all the elements.

\begin{center}
\begin{verbatim}
takeWhile :: (a -> Bool) -> [a] -> [a]
takeWhile p []     = []
takeWhile p (x:xs) |
    | p x       = x : takeWhile p xs
    | otherwise  = []
\end{verbatim}
\end{center}

For example:

\begin{verbatim}
> takeWhile isAlpha "abc def"
"abc"
\end{verbatim}
Dually, the function `dropWhile` removes elements while a predicate holds of all the elements.

\[
dropWhile :: (a \rightarrow \text{Bool}) \rightarrow [a] \rightarrow [a]
dropWhile p [] = []
dropWhile p (x:xs) \mid p x = dropWhile p xs
\mid \text{otherwise} = x:xs
\]

For example:

\[
> \text{dropWhile isSpace " abc" = "abc"}
\]
Exercises

(1) What are higher-order functions that return functions as results better known as?

(2) Express the comprehension \([f \ x \mid x \leftarrow xs, \ p \ x]\) using the functions map and filter.

(3) Redefine map \(f\) and filter \(p\) using foldr.
Type Declarations
Type Declarations

In Haskell, a new name for an existing type can be defined using a type declaration.

```
type String = [Char]
```

String is a synonym for the type [Char].
Type declarations can be used to make other types easier to read. For example, given

```haskell
type Pos = (Int,Int)
```

we can define:

```haskell
origin :: Pos
origin = (0,0)

left :: Pos -> Pos
left (x,y) = (x-1,y)
```
Like function definitions, type declarations can also have parameters. For example, given

\[
\text{type Pair } a = (a,a)
\]

we can define:

\[
\begin{align*}
\text{mult} &: \text{Pair } \text{Int} \rightarrow \text{Int} \\
\text{mult} (m,n) &= m \times n \\
\text{copy} &: a \rightarrow \text{Pair } a \\
\text{copy } x &= (x,x)
\end{align*}
\]
Type declarations can be nested:

- `type Pos = (Int,Int)`
- `type Trans = Pos → Pos`

However, they cannot be recursive:

- `type Tree = (Int,[Tree])`
Data Declarations

A completely new type can be defined by specifying its values using a data declaration.

```
data Bool = False | True
```

Bool is a new type, with two new values False and True.
Note:

๏ The two values False and True are called the constructors for the type Bool.

๏ Type and constructor names must begin with an upper-case letter.

๏ Data declarations are similar to context free grammars. The former specifies the values of a type, the latter the sentences of a language.
Values of new types can be used in the same ways as those of built-in types. For example, given

```haskell
data Answer = Yes | No | Unknown
```

we can define:

```haskell
answers :: [Answer]
answers = [Yes, No, Unknown]

flip :: Answer -> Answer
flip Yes = No
flip No = Yes
flip Unknown = Unknown
```
The constructors in a data declaration can also have parameters. For example, given

```
data Shape = Circle Float | Rect Float Float
```

we can define:

```
square :: Float → Shape
square n = Rect n n

area :: Shape → Float
area (Circle r) = pi * r^2
area (Rect x y) = x * y
```
Note:

- Shape has values of the form `Circle r` where `r` is a float, and `Rect x y` where `x` and `y` are floats.

- `Circle` and `Rect` can be viewed as functions that construct values of type `Shape`:

```haskell
Circle :: Float -> Shape
Rect  :: Float -> Float -> Shape
```
Not surprisingly, data declarations themselves can also have parameters. For example, given

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

we can define:

```haskell
safediv :: Int → Int → Maybe Int
safediv _ 0 = Nothing
safediv m n = Just (m `div` n)

safehead :: [a] → Maybe a
safehead [] = Nothing
safehead xs = Just (head xs)
```
Recursive Types

In Haskell, new types can be declared in terms of themselves. That is, types can be recursive.

```haskell
data Nat = Zero | Succ Nat
```

Nat is a new type, with constructors
Zero :: Nat and Succ :: Nat → Nat.
Note:

A value of type Nat is either Zero, or of the form Succ \( n \) where \( n :: \text{Nat} \). That is, Nat contains the following infinite sequence of values:

- Zero
- Succ Zero
- Succ (Succ Zero)
- ...
We can think of values of type Nat as natural numbers, where Zero represents 0, and Succ represents the successor function \(1+\).

For example, the value

\[
\text{Succ (Succ (Succ Zero))}
\]

represents the natural number

\[
1 + (1 + (1 + 0)) = 3
\]
Using recursion, it is easy to define functions that convert between values of type Nat and Int:

\[
\begin{align*}
\text{nat2int} & : \text{Nat} \to \text{Int} \\
\text{nat2int} \text{ Zero} & = 0 \\
\text{nat2int} \text{ (Succ n)} & = 1 + \text{nat2int} \text{ n} \\
\text{int2nat} & : \text{Int} \to \text{Nat} \\
\text{int2nat} \text{ 0} & = \text{Zero} \\
\text{int2nat} \text{ (n+1)} & = \text{Succ} \text{ (int2nat} \text{ n)}
\end{align*}
\]
Two naturals can be added by converting them to integers, adding, and then converting back:

\[
\text{add} :: \text{Nat} \to \text{Nat} \to \text{Nat} \\
\text{add } m \ n = \text{int2nat} \ (\text{nat2int} \ m + \text{nat2int} \ n)
\]

However, using recursion the function \text{add} can be defined without the need for conversions:

\[
\text{add \ Zero } n = n \\
\text{add } (\text{Succ } m) \ n = \text{Succ} \ (\text{add } m \ n)
\]
For example:

\[
\begin{align*}
\text{add} (\text{Succ} (\text{Succ Zero})) & (\text{Succ Zero}) \\
= & \text{Succ} (\text{add} (\text{Succ Zero}) (\text{Succ Zero})) \\
= & \text{Succ} (\text{Succ} (\text{add Zero} (\text{Succ Zero}))) \\
= & \text{Succ} (\text{Succ} (\text{Succ Zero}))
\end{align*}
\]

Note: The recursive definition for add corresponds to the laws \(0+n = n\) and \((1+m)+n = 1+(m+n)\).
Arithmetic Expressions

Consider a simple form of expressions built up from integers using addition and multiplication.
Using recursion, a suitable new type to represent such expressions can be declared by:

\[
\text{data Expr} = \text{Val} \text{ Int} \\
\quad \mid \text{Add} \text{ Expr} \text{ Expr} \\
\quad \mid \text{Mul} \text{ Expr} \text{ Expr}
\]

For example, the expression on the previous slide would be represented as follows:

\[
\text{Add} \left( \text{Val} \ 1 \right) \left( \text{Mul} \left( \text{Val} \ 2 \right) \left( \text{Val} \ 3 \right) \right)
\]
Using recursion, it is now easy to define functions that process expressions. For example:

```haskell
size :: Expr → Int
size (Val n) = 1
size (Add x y) = size x + size y
size (Mul x y) = size x + size y

eval :: Expr → Int
eval (Val n) = n
eval (Add x y) = eval x + eval y
eval (Mul x y) = eval x * eval y
```
On the types of constructors

The three constructors have types:

Val :: Int → Expr
Add :: Expr → Expr → Expr
Mul :: Expr → Expr → Expr
Many functions on expressions can be defined by replacing the constructors by other functions using a suitable fold function. For example:

```haskell
eval = fold id (+) (*)
```
Binary Trees

In computing, it is often useful to store data in a two-way branching structure or **binary tree**.
Using recursion, a suitable new type to represent such binary trees can be declared by:

```haskell
data Tree = Leaf Int
          | Node Tree Int Tree
```

For example, the tree on the previous slide would be represented as follows:

```
Node (Node (Leaf 1) 3 (Leaf 4))
  5
  (Node (Leaf 6) 7 (Leaf 9))
```
We can now define a function that decides if a given integer occurs in a binary tree:

```haskell
occurs :: Int → Tree → Bool
occurs m (Leaf n) = m == n
occurs m (Node l n r) = m == n
                   || occurs m l
                   || occurs m r
```

In the worst case, when the integer does not occur, this function traverses the entire tree.
Now consider the function \texttt{flatten} that returns the list of all the integers contained in a tree:

\[
\begin{align*}
\text{flatten} &:: \text{Tree} \rightarrow [\text{Int}] \\
\text{flatten} (\text{Leaf} \ n) & = [n] \\
\text{flatten} (\text{Node} \ l \ n \ r) & = \text{flatten} \ l \\
& \quad ++ [n] \\
& \quad ++ \text{flatten} \ r
\end{align*}
\]

A tree is a \texttt{search tree} if it flattens to a list that is ordered. Our example tree is a search tree, as it flattens to the ordered list \([1,3,4,5,6,7,9]\).
Search trees have the important property that when trying to find a value in a tree we can always decide which of the two sub-trees it may occur in:

\[
\text{occurs } m \ (\text{Leaf } n) = m = n
\]
\[
\text{occurs } m \ (\text{Node } l \ n \ r) = \begin{cases} 
  m = n = \text{True} \\
  m < n = \text{occurs } m \ l \\
  m > n = \text{occurs } m \ r
\end{cases}
\]

This new definition is more efficient, because it only traverses one path down the tree.
Exercises

(1) Using recursion and the function \texttt{add}, define a function that \texttt{multiplies} two natural numbers.

(2) Define a suitable function \texttt{fold} for expressions, and give a few examples of its use.

(3) A binary tree is \texttt{complete} if the two sub-trees of every node are of equal size. Define a function that decides if a binary tree is complete.
Functional Parsers
What is a Parser?

A parser is a program that analyses a piece of text to determine its syntactic structure.

2*3+4 means

2

3

* 

+ 

4
Where Are They Used?

Almost every real life program uses some form of parser to **pre-process** its input.

- Hugs
- Unix
- Explorer
- Haskell programs
- Shell scripts
- HTML documents
The Parser Type

In a functional language such as Haskell, parsers can naturally be viewed as functions.

```
type Parser = String → Tree
```

A parser is a function that takes a string and returns some form of tree.
However, a parser might not require all of its input string, so we also return any unused input:

\[
\text{type } \text{Parser} = \text{String} \rightarrow (\text{Tree}, \text{String})
\]

A string might be parsable in many ways, including none, so we generalize to a list of results:

\[
\text{type } \text{Parser} = \text{String} \rightarrow [(\text{Tree}, \text{String})]
\]
Finally, a parser might not always produce a tree, so we generalize to a value of *any type*:

\[
\text{type } \text{Parser } a = \text{String } \rightarrow [ (a, \text{String}) ]
\]

**Note:** For simplicity, we will only consider parsers that either fail and return the empty list of results, or succeed and return a **singleton list**.
Basic Parsers

The parser `item` fails if the input is empty, and consumes the first character otherwise:

\[
text{item} :: \text{Parser Char} \\
\text{item} = \lambda \text{inp} \rightarrow \text{case inp of} \\
\quad [] \rightarrow [] \\
\quad (x:xs) \rightarrow [(x, xs)]
\]
The parser `failure` always fails:

\[
\text{failure} :: \text{Parser } a
\]
\[
\text{failure} = \lambda \text{inp} \rightarrow []
\]

The parser `return v` always succeeds, returning the value `v` without consuming any input:

\[
\text{return} :: a \rightarrow \text{Parser } a
\]
\[
\text{return } v = \lambda \text{inp} \rightarrow [(v,\text{inp})]
\]
The parser \( p +++ q \) behaves as the parser \( p \) if it succeeds, and as the parser \( q \) otherwise:

\[
(++) :: \text{Parser } a \rightarrow \text{Parser } a \rightarrow \text{Parser } a
\]

\[
p +++ q = \lambda \text{inp} \rightarrow \text{case } p \text{ inp of}
\]

\[
[] \rightarrow q \text{ inp}
\]

\[
[(v,\text{out})] \rightarrow [(v,\text{out})]
\]
The function \texttt{parse} applies a parser to a string:

\begin{verbatim}
parse :: Parser a -> String -> [(a,String)]
parse p inp = p inp
\end{verbatim}
Examples

The behavior of the five parsing primitives can be illustrated with some simple examples:

```
% ghci Parsing
> parse item ""
[]

> parse item "abc"
[('a',"bc")]
```
> parse failure "abc"
[]

> parse (return 1) "abc"
[(1,"abc")]

> parse (item +++ return 'd') "abc"
[('a','bc')]

> parse (failure +++ return 'd') "abc"
[(d,"abc")]

Note:

- The library file Parsing is available on the web from the Programming in Haskell home page.

- For technical reasons, the first failure example actually gives an error concerning types, but this does not occur in non-trivial examples.

- The Parser type is a monad, a mathematical structure that has proved useful for modeling many different kinds of computations.
Sequencing

A sequence of parsers can be combined as a single composite parser using the keyword `do`.

For example:

```haskell
p :: Parser (Char,Char)
p = do
    x ← item
    item
    y ← item
    return (x,y)
```
Note:

- Each parser must begin in precisely the same column. That is, the layout rule applies.

- The values returned by intermediate parsers are discarded by default, but if required can be named using the ← operator.

- The value returned by the last parser is the value returned by the sequence as a whole.
If any parser in a sequence of parsers \textbf{fails}, then the sequence as a whole fails. For example:

\begin{verbatim}
> parse p "abcdef"
[([('a','c'),"def"])

> parse p "ab"
[]
\end{verbatim}

The do notation is not specific to the Parser type, but can be used with \textbf{any} monadic type.
Derived Primitives

Parsing a character that satisfies a predicate:

```haskell
sat :: (Char -> Bool) -> Parser Char
sat p = do
    x ← item
    if p x then
        return x
    else
        failure
```
Parsing a **digit** and specific **characters**:

```haskell
digit :: Parser Char
digit  = sat isDigit

char :: Char → Parser Char
char x  = sat (x ==)
```

Applying a parser **zero or more** times:

```haskell
many :: Parser a → Parser [a]
many p = many1 p ++ return []
```
Applying a parser **one or more** times:

\[
\begin{align*}
\text{many1} & \::= \text{Parser } a \rightarrow \text{Parser } [a] \\
\text{many1 } p & = \text{do } v \leftarrow p \\
& \phantom{=} \text{vs } \leftarrow \text{many } p \\
& \phantom{=} \text{return (v:vs)}
\end{align*}
\]

 Parsing a specific **string** of characters:

\[
\begin{align*}
\text{string} & \::= \text{String } \rightarrow \text{Parser } \text{String} \\
\text{string } [] & = \text{return } [] \\
\text{string } (x:xs) & = \text{do } \text{char } x \\
& \phantom{=} \text{string } xs \\
& \phantom{=} \text{return } (x:xs)
\end{align*}
\]
Example

We can now define a parser that consumes a list of one or more digits from a string:

```haskell
p :: Parser String
p = do
  char '['
  d ← digit
  ds ← many (do char ','
                digit)
  char ']
  return (d:ds)
```
For example:

```haskell
> parse p "[1,2,3,4]"
[([],"")]
> parse p "[1,2,3,4"
[]
```

Note: More sophisticated parsing libraries can indicate and/or recover from errors in the input string.
Arithmetic Expressions

Consider a simple form of expressions built up from single digits using the operations of addition + and multiplication *, together with parentheses.

We also assume that:

- * and + associate to the right;
- * has higher priority than +.
Formally, the syntax of such expressions is defined by the following context free grammar:

\[
\begin{align*}
\text{expr} & \rightarrow \text{term} \, \textbf{'+'} \, \text{expr} \mid \text{term} \\
\text{term} & \rightarrow \text{factor} \, \textbf{'*'} \, \text{term} \mid \text{factor} \\
\text{factor} & \rightarrow \text{digit} \mid \textbf{'} \text{expr} \textbf{'} \\
\text{digit} & \rightarrow \textbf{'0'} \mid \textbf{'1'} \mid \ldots \mid \textbf{'9'}
\end{align*}
\]
However, for reasons of efficiency, it is important to **factorise** the rules for expr and term:

\[
\begin{align*}
\text{expr} & \rightarrow \text{term} \left(\text{'}+\text{'} \text{expr} \mid \varepsilon\right) \\
\text{term} & \rightarrow \text{factor} \left(\text{'}*\text{'} \text{term} \mid \varepsilon\right)
\end{align*}
\]

**Note:** The symbol $\varepsilon$ denotes the empty string.
It is now easy to translate the grammar into a parser that evaluates expressions, by simply rewriting the grammar rules using the parsing primitives.

That is, we have:

```
expr :: Parser Int
expr  = do
  t ← term
  do  char '+'
    e ← expr
    return (t + e)
  return t
```
term :: Parser Int
term  = do  f ← factor
        do  char '*'
            t ← term
            return (f * t)
+++ return f

etc.
Finally, if we define

```haskell
eval :: String → Int
eval xs = fst (head (parse expr xs))
```

then we try out some examples:

```haskell
> eval "2*3+4"
10

> eval "2*(3+4)"
14
```
Exercises

(1) Why does factorising the expression grammar make the resulting parser more efficient?

(2) Extend the expression parser to allow the use of subtraction and division, based upon the following extensions to the grammar:

\[
\begin{align*}
\text{expr} & \rightarrow \text{term} (\text{'}+\text{'} \text{expr} \mid \text{'}-\text{'} \text{expr} \mid \varepsilon) \\
\text{term} & \rightarrow \text{factor} (\text{'}*\text{'} \text{term} \mid \text{'}/\text{'} \text{term} \mid \varepsilon)
\end{align*}
\]
Interactive Programs
To date, we have seen how Haskell can be used to write **batch** programs that take all their inputs at the start and give all their outputs at the end.
However, we would also like to use Haskell to write interactive programs that read from the keyboard and write to the screen, as they are running.
The Problem

Haskell programs are pure mathematical functions:

Haskell programs have no side effects.

However, reading from the keyboard and writing to the screen are side effects:

Interactive programs have side effects.
Interactive programs can be written in Haskell by using types to distinguish pure expressions from impure actions that may involve side effects.

The type of actions that return a value of type \( a \).
For example:

- **IO Char**
  - The type of actions that return a character.

- **IO ()**
  - The type of purely side effecting actions that return no result value.

Note:

() is the type of tuples with no components.
Basic Actions

The standard library provides a number of actions, including the following three primitives:

The action `getChar` reads a character from the keyboard, echoes it to the screen, and returns the character as its result value:

```
getChar :: IO Char
```
The action `putChar c` writes the character `c` to the screen, and returns no result value:

```
putChar :: Char → IO ()
```

The action `return v` simply returns the value `v`, without performing any interaction:

```
return :: a → IO a
```
Sequencing

A sequence of actions can be combined as a single composite action using the keyword \textbf{do}.

For example:

\begin{verbatim}
a :: IO (Char,Char)
a = do
    x ← getChar
    getChar
    y ← getChar
    return (x,y)
\end{verbatim}
Derived Primitives

Reading a string from the keyboard:

```
getLine :: IO String
getLine = do
  x ← getChar
  if x == '\n' then
    return []
  else
    do xs ← getLine
    return (x:xs)
```
Writing a string to the screen:

\[
\begin{align*}
\text{putStr} & \quad :: \quad \text{String} \rightarrow \text{IO} () \\
\text{putStr} \; [] & \quad = \quad \text{return} () \\
\text{putStr} \; (x:x) & \quad = \quad \text{do} \quad \text{putChar} \; x \\
& \quad \text{putStr} \; x \\
\end{align*}
\]

Writing a string and moving to a new line:

\[
\begin{align*}
\text{putStrLn} & \quad :: \quad \text{String} \rightarrow \text{IO} () \\
\text{putStrLn} \; xs & \quad = \quad \text{do} \quad \text{putStr} \; xs \\
& \quad \text{putChar} \; '\n'
\end{align*}
\]
Example

We can now define an action that prompts for a string to be entered and displays its length:

```haskell
strlen :: IO ()
strlen = do  putStrLn "Enter a string: ", putStrLn (show (length xs))
xs ← getLine
putStrLn "The string has ", putStrLn (show (length xs))
putStrLn "characters"
```
For example:

> strlen

Enter a string: abcd
e
The string has 5 characters

Note: Evaluating an action executes its side effects, with the final result value being discarded.
Consider the following version of **hangman**:

- One player secretly types in a word.
- The other player tries to deduce the word, by entering a sequence of guesses.
- For each guess, the computer indicates which letters in the secret word occur in the guess.
The game ends when the guess is correct.

We adopt a **top down** approach to implementing hangman in Haskell, starting as follows:

```haskell
hangman :: IO ()
hangman =
    do putStrLn "Think of a word: "
       word ← sgetLine
       putStrLn "Try to guess it:"
       guess word
```
The action `sgetLine` reads a line of text from the keyboard, echoing each character as a dash:

```
sgetLine :: IO String
sgetLine  = do
    x ← getCh
    if x == '\n' then
        do putChar x
        return []
    else
        do putChar '-'
        xs ← sgetLine
    return (x:xs)
```
The function `guess` is the main loop, which requests and processes guesses until the game ends.

```haskell
guess :: String → IO ()
guess word =
  do  putStr ">"
      xs ← getLine
      if xs == word then
        putStrLn "You got it!"
      else
        do  putStrLn (diff word xs)
            guess word
```

The action `getCh` reads a character from the keyboard, without echoing it to the screen.
The function `diff` indicates which characters in one string occur in a second string:

```haskell
(diff :: String → String → String) 

(diff xs ys = [if elem x ys then x else '-' | x <- xs])
```

For example:

```
> diff "haskell" "pascal"
"--as--ll"
```
Exercise

Implement the game of **nim** in Haskell, where the rules of the game are as follows:

- The board comprises five rows of stars:

```
1: * * * * *
2: * * * *
3: * * *
4: * *
5: *
```
Two players take it turn about to remove one or more stars from the end of a single row.

The winner is the player who removes the last star or stars from the board.

Hint:

Represent the board as a list of five integers that give the number of stars remaining on each row. For example, the initial board is [5,4,3,2,1].
The Countdown Problem
What Is Countdown?

- A popular quiz programme on British television that has been running since 1982.
- Based upon an original French version called "Des Chiffres et Des Lettres".
- Includes a numbers game that we shall refer to as the countdown problem.
Example

Using the numbers

1  3  7  10  25  50

and the arithmetic operators

+  -  *  ÷

construct an expression whose value is 765
Rules

๏ All the numbers, including intermediate results, must be positive naturals (1,2,3,...).

๏ Each of the source numbers can be used at most once when constructing the expression.

๏ We abstract from other rules that are adopted on television for pragmatic reasons.
For our example, one possible solution is

\[(25-10) \times (50+1) = 765\]

Notes:

- There are 780 solutions for this example.
- Changing the target number to 831 gives an example that has no solutions.
% Solutions Ts for countdown problem with numbers Ns, result X

solve(Ns,X,Ts) :-
    findall(T,( 
        sublist(L,Ns),
        permutation(L,P),
        compute(P,T),
        X is T
    ),Ts).
% Generate all sublists of a given list

sublist([],[]).
sublist(Z,[H|T]) :-
    sublist(Y,T),
    ( Z = Y
    ; Z = [H|Y]
    ).
% Generate all permutations of a given list

permutation([],[]).
permutation([H|T1],L) :-
    permutation(T1,T2),
    append(T2a,T2b,T2),
    append(T2a,[H|T2b],L).
% Complete sequences of numbers into arithmetic expressions

compute([R],R).
compute(As,T) :-
    append(As1,As2,As),
    As1 = [[]], As2 = [[]],
    compute(As1,T1),
    compute(As2,T2),
    ( T = T1 + T2 
    ; T = T1 - T2 
    ; T = T1 * T2 
    ; T = T1 / T2 
    ),
    R is T, R > 0, integer(R).
Evaluating Expressions

Operators:

```haskell
data Op = Add | Sub | Mul | Div
```

Apply an operator:

```haskell
apply :: Op -> Int -> Int -> Int
apply Add x y = x + y
apply Sub x y = x - y
apply Mul x y = x * y
apply Div x y = x `div` y
```
Decide if the result of applying an operator to two positive natural numbers is another such:

\[
\begin{align*}
\text{valid} & \quad :: \text{Op} \rightarrow \text{Int} \rightarrow \text{Int} \rightarrow \text{Bool} \\
\text{valid Add \_\_} & = \text{True} \\
\text{valid Sub x y} & = x > y \\
\text{valid Mul \_\_} & = \text{True} \\
\text{valid Div x y} & = x \ `\text{mod}\` \ y == 0
\end{align*}
\]

Expressions:

\[
data \text{Expr} = \text{Val \ Int} \mid \text{App \ Op \ Expr \ Expr}
\]
Return the overall value of an expression, provided that it is a positive natural number:

```
 eval :: Expr → [Int]
eval (Val n) = [n | n > 0]
eval (App o l r) = [apply o x y | x ← eval l,
                   , y ← eval r,
                   , valid o x y]
```

Either succeeds and returns a singleton list, or fails and returns the empty list.
Formalising The Problem

Return a list of all possible ways of choosing zero or more elements from a list:

```
choices :: [a] → [[a]]
```

For example:

```
> choices [1,2]
[[],[1],[2],[1,2],[2,1]]
```
Return a list of all the values in an expression:

\[
\text{values} :: \text{Expr} \rightarrow [\text{Int}]
\]
\[
\text{values} (\text{Val } n) = [n]
\]
\[
\text{values} (\text{App } l r) = \text{values} l ++ \text{values} r
\]

Decide if an expression is a solution for a given list of source numbers and a target number:

\[
\text{solution} :: \text{Expr} \rightarrow [\text{Int}] \rightarrow \text{Int} \rightarrow \text{Bool}
\]
\[
\text{solution} e ns n = \text{elem} (\text{values} e) (\text{choices} ns)
\]
\[
\text{&& eval} e == [n]
\]
Brute Force Solution

Return a list of all possible ways of splitting a list into two non-empty parts:

\[
\text{split} :: [a] \rightarrow \left([[a],[a]]\right)
\]

For example:

\[
> \text{split} \ [1,2,3,4] \\
\left([\{1\},[2,3,4]\},([1,2],[3,4]),([1,2,3],[4])\right)
\]
Return a list of all possible expressions whose values are precisely a given list of numbers:

```
exprs :: [Int] → [Expr]
eexprs [] = []
eexprs [n] = [Val n]
eexprs ns = [e | (ls,rs) ← split ns,
              l ← eexprs ls,
              r ← eexprs rs,
              e ← combine l r]
```

The key function in this lecture.
Combine two expressions using each operator:

```
combine :: Expr -> Expr -> [Expr]
combine l r =
    [App o l r | o <- [Add, Sub, Mul, Div]]
```

Return a list of all possible expressions that solve an instance of the countdown problem:

```
solutions :: [Int] -> Int -> [Expr]
solutions ns n =
    [e | ns' <- choices ns', e <- exprs ns', eval e == [n]]
```
How Fast Is It?

System: 1.2GHz Pentium M laptop

Compiler: GHC version 6.4.1

Example: 

One solution: 0.36 seconds

All solutions: 43.98 seconds
Can We Do Better?

- Many of the expressions that are considered will typically be invalid - fail to evaluate.

- For our example, only around 5 million of the 33 million possible expressions are valid.

- Combining generation with evaluation would allow earlier rejection of invalid expressions.
Fusing Two Functions

Valid expressions and their values:

\[
\text{results} :: [\text{Int}] \rightarrow [\text{Result}]
\]

\[
\text{results ns} = [(e,n) | e \leftarrow \text{exprs ns}, n \leftarrow \text{eval e}]
\]
This behaviour is achieved by defining:

```haskell
results [] = []
results [n] = [(Val n,n) | n > 0]
results ns =
  [res | (ls,rs) ← split ns
    , lx ← results ls
    , ry ← results rs
    , res ← combine' lx ry]
```

where

```
combine' :: Result → Result → [Result]
```
Combining results:

```haskell
combine' (l,x) (r,y) = 
  [(App o l r, apply o x y) |
    o ← [Add,Sub,Mul,Div] , valid o x y]
```

New function that solves countdown problems:

```haskell
solutions' :: [Int] → Int → [Expr]
solutions' ns n = 
  [e | ns' ← choices ns 
    , (e,m) ← results ns' 
    , m == n]
```
How Fast Is It Now?

Example: \texttt{solutions' [1,3,7,10,25,50] 765}

One solution: 0.04 seconds

All solutions: 3.47 seconds

Around 10 times faster in both cases.
Can We Do Better?

Many expressions will be essentially the same using simple arithmetic properties, such as:

\[ x \times y = y \times x \]
\[ x \times 1 = x \]

Exploiting such properties would considerably reduce the search and solution spaces.
Exploiting Properties

Strengthening the valid predicate to take account of commutativity and identity properties:

\[
\text{valid} \quad :: \quad \text{Op} \to \text{Int} \to \text{Int} \to \text{Bool}
\]

\[
\text{valid Add } x \ y = \text{True} \quad \begin{aligned} x \leq y \end{aligned}
\]

\[
\text{valid Sub } x \ y = x > y
\]

\[
\text{valid Mul } x \ y = \text{True} \quad \begin{aligned} x \leq y \&\& x \neq 1 \&\& y \neq 1 \end{aligned}
\]

\[
\text{valid Div } x \ y = x \ `\text{mod}` \ y == 0 \quad \begin{aligned} \&\& y \neq 1 \end{aligned}
\]
How Fast Is It Now?

Example: solutions'' [1,3,7,10,25,50] 765

Valid: 250,000 expressions

 Solutions: 49 expressions

Around 20 times less.

Around 16 times less.
One solution: 0.02 seconds

All solutions: 0.44 seconds

More generally, our program usually produces a solution to problems from the television show in an instant, and all solutions in under a second.
End of Introduction to Haskell