Functional Programming

M269 Extension Tutorial

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1 Agenda

- Welcome & Introductions
- Functional programming introduction
- Programming environment and notation
- Program construction with functions and expressions rather than commands and statements
- Functions are first-class citizens
- Higher order functions
- Powerful combining forms
- Function composition
- · Lazy evaluation or non-strict semantics
- Strong polymorphic type system
- Recursion and recursion patterns
- Efficiency and pragmatic issues

Introductions — Me

- Name Phil Molyneux
- Background Physics and Maths, Operational Research, Computer Science
- First programming languages Fortran, BASIC, Pascal
- Favourite Software
 - Haskell pure functional programming language
 - Text editors TextMate, Sublime Text previously Emacs
 - Word processing in LATEX
 - Mac OS X
- *Learning style* I read the manual before using the software (really)

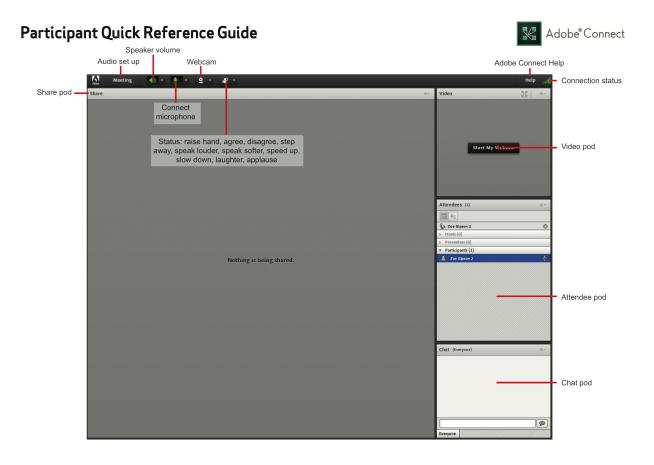
Introductions — You

- Name?
- Position in M269? Which part of which Units and/or Reader have you read?
- Particular topics you want to look at?
- Learning Syle?

2 Adobe Connect Interface and Settings

2.1 Adobe Connect Interface — Student View

Adobe Connect Interface — Student Quick Reference



Adobe Connect Interface — Student View



2.2 Adobe Connect Settings

Adobe Connect Settings

- Everybody: Audio Settings Meeting Audio Setup Wizard...
- Audio Menu bar Audio Microphone rights for Participants 🗸
- Do not Enable single speaker mode
- Drawing Tools Share pod menu bar Draw (1 slide/screen)
- Share pod menu bar Menu icon Enable Participants to draw 🗸 gray
- Meeting Preferences Whiteboard Enable Participants to draw
- Cancel hand tool
- Do not enable green pointer...
- Meeting Preferences Attendees Pod Disable Raise Hand notification
- Cursor Meeting Preferences General tab Host Cursors Show to all attendees ✓ (default Off)
- Meeting Preferences Screen Share Cursor Show Application Cursor
- Webcam Menu bar Webcam Enable Webcam for Participants
- Recording Meeting Record Meeting...

Adobe Connect — Access

- Tutor Access
- TutorHome M269 Website Tutorials
- Cluster Tutorials M269 Online tutorial room
- Tutor Groups M269 Online tutor group room
- Attendance

```
TutorHome Students View your tutorial timetables
```

- Beamer Slide Scaling 440% (422 x 563 mm)
- Clear Everyone's Status

```
Attendee Pod Menu Clear Everyone's Status
```

• Grant Access

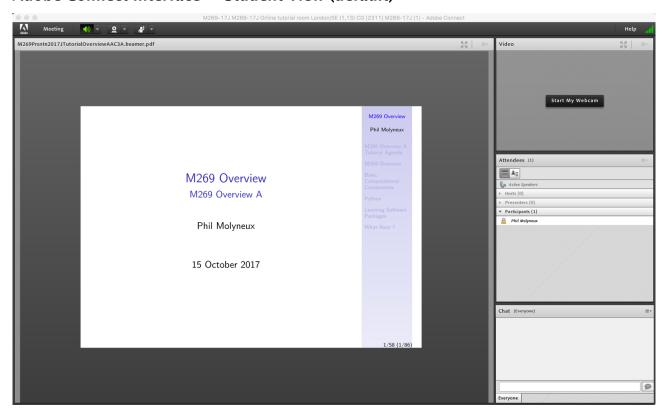
```
Meeting Manage Access & Entry Invite Participants... and send link via email
```

Adobe Connect — **Keystroke Shortcuts**

- Keyboard shortcuts in Adobe Connect
- Toggle Mic # + M (Mac), Ctrl + M (Win) (On/Disconnect)
- Toggle Raise-Hand status # + E
- Close dialog box [5] (Mac), Esc (Win)

2.3 Adobe Connect Interface — Student & Tutor Views

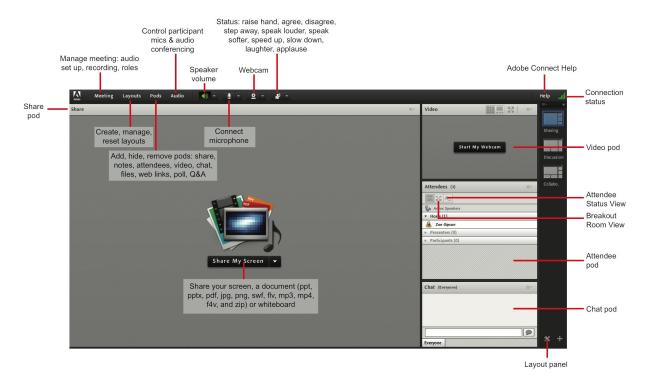
Adobe Connect Interface — Student View (default)



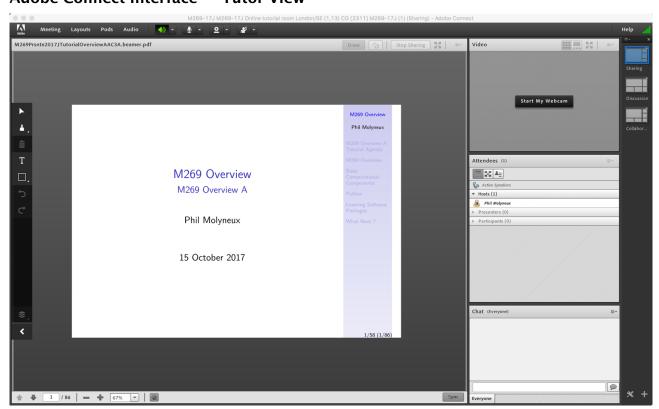
Adobe Connect Interface — Tutor Quick Reference

Host Quick Reference Guide





Adobe Connect Interface — Tutor View



2.4 Adobe Connect — Sharing Screen & Applications

- Share My Screen Application tab Terminal for Terminal
- Share menu Change View Zoom in for mismatch of screen size/resolution (Participants)
- (Presenter) Change to 75% and back to 100% (solves participants with smaller screen image overlap)
- Leave the application on the original display
- Beware blued hatched rectangles from other (hidden) windows or contextual menus
- Presenter screen pointer affects viewer display beware of moving the pointer away from the application
- First time: System Preferences Security & Privacy Privacy Accessibility

2.5 Adobe Connect — Ending a Meeting

- Notes for the tutor only
- Student: Meeting Exit Adobe Connect
- Tutor:
- Recording Meeting Stop Recording 🗸
- Remove Participants Meeting End Meeting...
 - Dialog box allows for message with default message:
 - The host has ended this meeting. Thank you for attending.
- Recording availability In course Web site for joining the room, click on the eye icon
 in the list of recordings under your recording edit description and name
- **Meeting Information** Meeting Manage Meeting Information can access a range of information in Web page.
- Attendance Report see course Web site for joining room

2.6 Adobe Connect — Invite Attendees

- Provide Meeting URL Menu Meeting Manage Access & Entry Invite Participants...
- Allow Access without Dialog Menu Meeting Manage Meeting Information provides new browser window with Meeting Information Tab bar Edit Information
- Check Anyone who has the URL for the meeting can enter the room
- Default Only registered users and accepted guests may enter the room
- Reverts to default next session but URL is fixed
- Guests have blue icon top, registered participants have yellow icon top same icon if URL is open

• See Start, attend, and manage Adobe Connect meetings and sessions

2.7 Layouts

- Creating new layouts example Sharing layout
- Menu Layouts Create New Layout... Create a New Layout dialog Create a new blank layout and name it PMolyMain
- New layout has no Pods but does have Layouts Bar open (see Layouts menu)
- Pods
- Menu Pods Share Add New Share and resize/position initial name is Share n
- Rename Pod Menu Pods Manage Pods... Manage Pods Select Rename Or Double-click & rename
- Add Video pod and resize/reposition
- Add Attendance pod and resize/reposition
- Add Chat pod name it *PMolyChat* and resize/reposition
- Dimensions of **Sharing** layout (on 27-inch iMac)
 - Width of Video, Attendees, Chat column 14 cm
 - Height of Video pod 9 cm
 - Height of Attendees pod 12 cm
 - Height of Chat pod 8 cm
- **Duplicating Layouts** does *not* give new instances of the Pods and is probably not a good idea (apart from local use to avoid delay in reloading Pods)

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3 Haskell & GHC

- You can dofunctional programming in any language
- To really see some of the ideas it is best to use a language that directly implements these ideas
- These notes use Haskell and the implementation GHC
- We first set this file up as a Literate Haskell Script (this page explains roughly how I do my notes)

```
module M269TutorialExtension2019J where import Data.List
```

- A Haskell script starts with a module header which starts with the reserved identifier, module followed by the module name, M269TutorialExtension2019J
- The module name must start with an upper case letter and is the same as the file name (without its extension of .lhs)

- Haskell uses *layout* (or the *off-side rule*) to determine scope of definitions, similar to Python
- The body of the module follows the reserved identifier where and starts with import declarations
- These import the built-in libraries
- We use the sort function from Data.List
- The Haskell standard library, Prelude, is always present
- We start the GHC REPL (Read-eval-print loop) from a command line with ghci

```
GHCi> : 1 M269TutorialExtension2019J
[1 of 1] Compiling -- stuff removed
Ok, one module loaded.
GHCi>
```

 At the GHCi prompt we can evaluate expressions with any builtin functions or in our script

```
GHCi> 6 * 7
42
GHCi> length [9,16,25]
3
GHCi>
```

- length is defined in the standard Prelude library
- It returns the *size* of its argument in this case the length of the list [9,16,25]
- Notice the quiet notation for function application
- Function application is denoted by juxtaposition and is more binding than (almost) anything else (remember BODMAS ?)
- f x not f(x)
- We can define values at the GHC prompt

```
GHCi> let add x y = x + y
GHCi> add 2 3
5
```

- Function application is left associative
- So add 2 3 means (add 2) 3
- What could add x mean?
- And what is the *type* of add? You said this language is strongly typed where is the type specification (as in Java, but not Python, which is weakly typed)
- GHC can infer the most general type of a variable in the Haskell type system

```
GHCi> :type add
add :: Num a => a -> a -> a
```

- This means add takes two arguments of type a as long as that type is some sort of number, and it returns a number of the same type a
- Num is the Type Class of all the type that implement the behaviour of numbers
- This is similar to interfaces and generics in Java

- The type class Num is defined in the Prelude and includes the usual integers and floating point numbers and also arbitrary precision integers and rational numbers
- What is the meaning of add x?

```
GHCi> :type (add 2)
(add 2) :: Num a => a -> a
```

- This means add 2 is a function which takes a number and adds 2 to the number
- add x y means (add x) y function application is left associative
- The type $(a \rightarrow a \rightarrow a)$ means $a \rightarrow (a \rightarrow a)$
- The function type arrow (->) associates to the right to be consistent with the left associativity of function application
- This means we get a notation for higher-order functions and partial application for free (no need for a special notation)

3.1 GHCi Commands

- :? display list of commands
- GHC Manual GHC User Guide
- :load, :l load module(s)
- :reload, :r reload current module set
- :type, :t show the type of an expression
- :info, :i display information about the given names
- <statement> evaluate/run <statement>
- :set editor <cmd> set the command used for :edit
- :set +m allow multilevel commands see Multiline input
- :set +s print timing/memory stats after each evaluation
- See also the .ghci and .haskeline files

4 Types & Type Classes

- Types are collections of related values
- Common primitive and built-in data types include characters, numbers, Booleans, lists, strings, tuples and function types
- Type systems are syntactic methods for assigning a type to each expression in the programming language the aim is to prove the absence of certain program behaviours by answering the following:
- **Type checking** given a type signature for an expression expr :: t, is expr an instance of type t?

- Type inference given an expression expr what is its most general type?
- Given a type t, is there any expression for it or does the type have no values? This
 is related to the Curry-Howard isomorphism

4.1 Expressions & Types

• A type is a collection of related values and operations

```
GHCi> :t (2 == 3)
(2 == 3) :: Bool
GHCi> (2 == 3)
False
```

- Basic types
- Booleans type name Bool values False, True
- Characters type name Char values 'a', Unicode plus ways of escaping special characters such as new line
- **Strings** type name **String** values "Hello" strings are actually syntactic sugar for [Char]
- **Numbers** the usual Int, Float, Double but also arbitrary precision Integer, Ratio and also Complex
- Lists are sequences of elements of the same type

```
GHCi> :t [True,False, not (1 == 3)]
[True, False, not (1 == 3)] :: [Bool] -- no evaluation is done
GHCi> length []
                                                -- [] is an empty list
GHCi> 5 : [3,4]
                                                -- (:) list constructor
[5,3,4]
GHCi> :t (:)
(:) :: a -> [a] -> [a]
GHCi> head [5,3,4]
GHCi> tail [5,3,4]
GHCi> ["Athos","Porthos"] ++ ["Aramis","d'Artigan"]
["Athos","Porthos","Aramis","d'Artigan"] -- (++) appends two lists
GHCi> [5,3,4] !! 2 -- (!!) indexes from 0
[3,4]
GHCi> take 2 [5,3,4]
[5,3]
GHCi> drop 2 [5,3,4]
[4]
```

- List Comprehensions provide a concise way of performing calculations over lists
- Example: Square the even numbers between 0 and 9

```
GHCi> [x^2 | x <- [0..9], x 'mod' 2 == 0]
[0,4,16,36,64]
GHCi>
```

• In general

```
[expr | qual1, qual2,..., qualN]
```

- The qualifiers qual can be
 - Generators pattern <- list

- Boolean guards acting as filters
- Local declarations with let decls for use in expr and later generators and boolean guards
- Note 'mod' is a function made into an infix operator
- Arithmetic sequences provide a concise way of generating a list of values from an enumerable type

```
GHCi> [1..10]

[1,2,3,4,5,6,7,8,9,10]

GHCi> [1,3..10]

[1,3,5,7,9]
```

• We can also denote an infinite list (as long as we only consume a finite part) — lazy evaluation gives us this but it is special in Python

```
GHCi> take 10 (drop 10 [100 ..])
[110,111,112,113,114,115,116,117,118,119]
```

• And it works with any enumerable type

```
GHCi> ['A', 'D' .. 'Z']
"ADGJMPSVY"
```

• Strings are just syntactic sugar for list of characters [Char]

4.2 Type Classes

- Types specify sets of elements or data constructors
- Primitive: Numbers, characters
- Builtin: Booleans, Lists, Tuples, Maybe for failure or success, Either for error or correct value, the Unit type, a type with only one (non-bottom) value, when you have to have a type but don't want to do anything with it see What is () in Haskell
- User defined types: algebraic data type (naming the type constructor and data constructors see LYAH chp 7), type synonyms, Datatype renamings
- Bottom, \(\preceq\) or undefined is the value of a program that crashes or loops forever
- Type Classes provide a structured way of *overloading*
- For example, (+) works with Int, Integer, Float and other types of numbers
- Type Classes are specified by behaviour
- For a type to be a member of a type class, we have to provide an implementation of some functions

4.2.1 Introduction to Haskell Builtin Type Classes

- Eq for equality all basic data types are instances except functions and IO
- Ord for ordering for types that have a total ordering
- Enum for enumeration defining operations on sequentially ordered types

- Bounded to name the upper and lower limits of a type
- Numbers have a family of classes
- Show and Read for printable and readable types
- Further type classes express types which capture common patterns of computation

 see LYAH chp 7 (Functor), chp 11 (Applicative), chp 12 (Monoid, Foldable), chp 13 (Monad), and Traversable
- See Functors, Applicatives, And Monads In Pictures and Typeclassopedia for good introductions to these

4.2.2 Equality Class

```
class Eq a where
  (==), (/=) :: a -> a -> Bool

-- Minimal complete definition
-- (==) or (/=)

x /= y = not (x == y)
x == y = not (x /= y)
```

4.2.3 Ordered Class

```
class (Eq a) => Ord a where
 compare
                    :: a -> a -> Ordering
  (<),(<=),(>=),(>) :: a -> a -> Bool
 max, min
                    :: a -> a -> a
  -- Minimal complete definition
  -- (<=) or compare
  compare x y
  | x == y = EQ
| x <= y = LT
   | otherwise = GT
 x \ll y = compare x y /= GT
 x < y = compare x y == LT
 x >= y = compare x y /= LT
 x > y = compare x y == GT
-- data Ordering = LT | EQ | GT
          deriving (Eq, Ord, Enum, Read, Show, Bounded)
```

 Note that the Ordering algebraic data type is defined elsewhere in the Haskell Prelude and is not part of the Ord type class declaration

4.2.4 Enumeration Class

```
class Enum a where
  succ, pred
                  :: a -> a
  toEnum
                  :: Int -> a
  fromEnum
                  :: a -> Int
 enumFrom
                                          -- [n..]
                  :: a -> [a]
                                     -- [n,p..]
-- [n..m]
  enumFromThen
                  :: a -> a -> [a]
                 :: a -> a -> [a]
 enumFromTo
  enumFromThenTo :: a \rightarrow a \rightarrow [a] -- [n,p..m]
  -- Minimal complete definition
  -- toEnum, fromEnum
```

• Class Enum defines operations on sequentially ordered types

```
GHCi> enumFromThenTo 'a' 'c' 'z'

"acegikmoqsuwy"

GHCi> ['a','c' .. 'z']

"acegikmoqsuwy"
```

Note that the spaces either side of .. are sometimes required (to avoid misidentifying a qualified name)

4.2.5 Bounded Class

```
class Bounded a where
minBound :: a
maxBound :: a
```

```
GHCi> minBound :: Bool
False
GHCi> maxBound :: Bool
True
GHCi> minBound :: Int
-9223372036854775808
GHCi> 2^63
9223372036854775808
GHCi> maxBound :: Int
9223372036854775807
GHCi> minBound :: Word
0
GHCi> maxBound :: Word
18446744073709551615
GHCi> 2^64 - 1
18446744073709551615
```

4.2.6 Read and Show Classes

```
class Read a where
class Show a where
```

```
GHCi> :t read
read :: Read a => String -> a
GHCi> :t show
show :: Show a \Rightarrow a \rightarrow String
GHCi> read "True" :: Bool
True
GHCi> read "321" :: Int
321
GHCi> read "Just____True" :: Maybe Bool
Just True
GHCi> read "(Nothing, 321)" :: (Maybe Bool, Int)
(Nothing, 321)
GHCi> show (Just True)
"Just_True
GHCi> show "True"
"\"True\"
```

5 Function Definitions — Styles

- Declaration vs. expression style
- **Declaration style:** you formulate an algorithm in terms of several equations that shall be satisfied
- Expression style: you compose big expressions from small expressions.
- Declaration style:
- Function arguments on left hand side

```
4    treble01 x = 3 * x
6    square01 x = x * x
```

Pattern matching in function definitions

```
7  length01 [] = 0
8  length01 (x : xs) = 1 + length01 xs
```

Guards on function definitions

- where clause
- Expression style:
- Function composition (.)

```
trebleThenSquare x = (square01 . treble01) x
squareThenTreble = treble01 . square01
```

- Where did the argument go? Pointfree style can confuse beginners
- Do evaluations of:

```
test01 = trebleThenSquare 2
test02 = squareThenTreble 2
```

if expression

- Expression style:
- Lambda abstraction

```
square02 = \langle x -> x * x
```

• case expression

- let expression
- Let expression

- Where clause declarations local to the right hand side of a function definition (also used in top level class and instance declarations)
- See example usage (and misuse) in M269 Graph Algorithms tutorial notes
- See Let vs Where
- To evaluate a function applied to actual arguments, substitute the actual arguments into the body of the definition of the function where the corresponding formal arguments occur

```
length01 [] = 0 -- (A)
length01 (x : xs) = 1 + length01 xs -- (B)
```

• Evaluate length01 [6,8,3]

6 Higher-order Functions

- Instead of special syntactic constructs such as for, while we capture common patterns with higher-order functions
- Higher order functions are functions that can take functions as arguments and/or return functions as results

- In functional programming, functions are first class citizens they can be treated as data
- You just can't print a function or compare functions for equality
- This section looks at the most commonly used higher order functions
- map, filter, function composition (.), function application (\$) and the fold family

6.1 Map, Filter

- map takes a function and a list and applies the function to every element of the list
- map can be defined with recursion: (name change to avoid Prelude clash)

```
map01 :: (a -> b) -> [a] -> [b]
map01 f [] = []
map01 f (x:xs) = f x : map01 f xs
```

• map can also be defined with a list comprehension:

```
map02 :: (a \rightarrow b) \rightarrow [a] \rightarrow [b]
map02 f xs = [f x | x <- xs]
```

- filter takes a predicate (a function that returns a Boolean) and a list and returns all the elements that satisfy the predicate
- filter can be defined with recursion: (name change to avoid Prelude clash)

• filter can also be defined with a list comprehension:

```
filter02 :: (a -> Bool) -> [a] -> [a]
filter02 p xs = [x | x <- xs, p x]
```

6.2 List Comprehensions

List Comprehensions — Python

- **List Comprehensions** provide a concise way of performing calculations over lists (or other iterables)
- Example: Square the even numbers between 0 and 9

In general

```
[expr for target1 in iterable1 if cond1
    for target2 in iterable2 if cond2 ...
    for targetN in iterableN if condN ]
```

Lots example usage in the algorithms below

List Comprehensions — **Python**

- List Comprehensions provide a concise way of performing calculations over lists
- Example: Square the even numbers between 0 and 9

```
GHCi> [x^2 | x <- [0..9], x 'mod' 2 == 0]

[0,4,16,36,64]

GHCi>
```

In general

```
[expr | qual1, qual2,..., qualN]
```

- The qualifiers qual can be
 - Generators pattern <- list</pre>
 - Boolean guards acting as filters
 - Local declarations with let decls for use in expr and later generators and boolean guards

Activity 1 (a) Stop Words Filter

- Stop words are the most common words that most search engines avoid: 'a', 'an', 'the', 'the' list comprehensions, write a function filterStopWords that takes a list of
- Using list comprehensions, write a function filterStopWords that takes a list of words and filters out the stop words
- Here is the initial code

Go to Answer

Activity 1 (a) Stop Words Filter

- Notice the Python Explicit line joining with (\<n1>) and Python Implicit line joining with ((...))
- The backslash (\) must be followed by an end of line character (<n1>)
- The ('_') symbol represents a space (see Unicode U+2423 Open Box)

Go to Answer

Activity 1 (b) Transpose Matrix

- A matrix can be represented as a list of rows of numbers
- We transpose a matrix by swapping columns and rows
- Here is an example

```
matrixA \
38
39
        = [[1, 2, 3, 4]
          ,[5, 6, 7,8]
40
          ,[9, 10, 11, 12]]
41
      matATr \
43
         [[1, 5, 9]
44
         ,[2, 6, 10]
45
          ,[3, 7, 11]
46
          ,[4, 8, 12]]
47
```

• Using list comprehensions, write a function transMat, to transpose a matrix

Go to Answer

Activity 1 (c) List Pairs in Fair Order

- Write a function which takes a pair of positive integers and outputs a list of all possible pairs in those ranges
- If we do this in the simplest way we get a bias to one argument
- Here is an example of a bias to the second argument

Go to Answer

Activity 1 (c) List Pairs in Fair Order

- Rewrite the function which takes a pair of positive integers and outputs a list of all possible pairs in those ranges
- The output should treat each argument fairly any initial prefix should have roughly the same number of instances of each argument
- Here is an example output

Go to Answer

Activity 1 (c) List Pairs in Fair Order

- Rewrite the function which takes a pair of positive integers and outputs a list of lists of all possible pairs in those ranges
- The output should treat each argument *fairly* any initial prefix should have roughly the same number of instances of each argument further, the output should be segment by each initial prefix (see example below)
- · Here is an example output

```
fairLstATest \
    = (fairListingA(5,5)
    = [[(0, 0)]
    , [(0, 1), (1, 0)]
    , [(0, 2), (1, 1), (2, 0)]
    , [(0, 3), (1, 2), (2, 1), (3, 0)]
    , [(0, 4), (1, 3), (2, 2), (3, 1), (4, 0)]])
```

Go to Answer

Answer 1 (a) Stop Words Filter

- Answer 1 (a) Stop Words Filter
- Write here:

Answer 1 (a) Stop Words Filter

Answer 1 (a) Stop Words Filter

```
def filterStopWords(words) :
24
           nonStopWords \
25
            = [word for word in words
26
27
                        if word not in stopWords]
           return nonStopWords
28
        filterStopWordsTest \
          ilterStopWorus:ese \
= filterStopWords(words) \
= filterStopWords(words) \
'prown', 'fox'
31
32
              == ['quick', 'brown', 'fox'
, 'jumps', 'over', 'lazy', 'dog']
33
34
```

Go to Activity

Answer 1 (b) Transpose Matrix

- Answer 1 (b) Transpose Matrix
- Write here:

Answer 1 (b) Transpose Matrix

Answer 1 (b) Transpose Matrix

```
def transMat(mat) :
49
        rowLen = len(mat[0])
50
51
        matTr \
         = [[row[i] for row in mat] for i in range(rowLen)]
52
53
        return matTr
      transMatTestA \
55
56
       = (transMat(matrixA)
57
          == matATr)
```

- Note that a list comprehension is a valid expression as a target expression in a list comprehension
- The code assumes every row is of the same length

Go to Activity

Answer 1 (b) Transpose Matrix

• Note the differences in the list comprehensions below

Go to Activity

Answer 1 (b) Transpose Matrix

- Answer 1 (b) Transpose Matrix
- The Python NumPy package provides functions for N-dimensional array objects
- For transpose see numpy.ndarray.transpose

Go to Activity

Answer 1 (c) List Pairs in Fair Order

• Answer 1 (c) List Pairs in Fair Order — first version

• Write here

Go to Activity

Answer 1 (c) List Pairs in Fair Order

- Answer 1 (c) List Pairs in Fair Order
- This is the obvious but biased version

```
def yBiasListing(xRng,yRng) :
63
         yBiasLst \
64
          = [(x,y) for x in range(xRng)
65
66
                     for y in range(yRng)]
67
         return yBiasLst
69
       yBiasLstTest \
70
        = (yBiasListing(5,5)
            == [(0, 0), (0, 1), (0, 2), (0, 3), (0, 4)]
71
                , (1, 0), (1, 1), (1, 2), (1, 3), (1, 4)
72
                , (2, 0), (2, 1), (2, 2), (2, 3), (2, 4)
, (3, 0), (3, 1), (3, 2), (3, 3), (3, 4)
73
74
                (4, 0), (4, 1), (4, 2), (4, 3), (4, 4)]
```

Go to Activity

Answer 1 (c) List Pairs in Fair Order

- Answer 1 (c) List Pairs in Fair Order second version
- Write here

```
fairLstTest \
= (fairListing(5,5)
== [(0, 0)
, (0, 1), (1, 0)
, (0, 2), (1, 1), (2, 0)
, (0, 3), (1, 2), (2, 1), (3, 0)
, (0, 4), (1, 3), (2, 2), (3, 1), (4, 0)])
```

Go to Activity

Answer 1 (c) List Pairs in Fair Order

- Answer 1 (c) List Pairs in Fair Order second version
- This works by making the sum of the coordinates the same for each prefix

```
def fairListing(xRng,yRng) :
         fairLst \
78
79
          = [(x,d-x) for d in range(yRng)
                       for x in range(d+1)]
80
         return fairLst
81
       fairLstTest \
83
        = (fairListing(5,5)
84
85
             == [(0, 0)]
                , (0, 1), (1, 0)
86
87
                , (0, 2), (1, 1), (2, 0)
                , (0, 3), (1, 2), (2, 1), (3, 0)
, (0, 4), (1, 3), (2, 2), (3, 1), (4, 0)]
88
89
```

Go to Activity

Answer 1 (c) List Pairs in Fair Order

- Answer 1 (c) List Pairs in Fair Order third version
- Write here

```
fairLstATest \
    = (fairListingA(5,5))
    == [[(0, 0)]
    , [(0, 1), (1, 0)]
    , [(0, 2), (1, 1), (2, 0)]
    , [(0, 3), (1, 2), (2, 1), (3, 0)]
    , [(0, 4), (1, 3), (2, 2), (3, 1), (4, 0)]])
```

Go to Activity

Answer 1 (c) List Pairs in Fair Order

- Answer 1 (c) List Pairs in Fair Order third version
- The *inner loop* is placed into its own list comprehension

```
def fairListingA(xRng,yRng) :
91
          fairLstA \
92
           = [[(x,d-x) \text{ for } x \text{ in } range(d+1)]
93
                         for d in range(yRng)]
94
          return fairLstA
95
       fairLstATest \
97
        = (fairListingA(5,5)
98
99
             == [[(0, 0)]
                 , [(0, 1), (1, 0)]
, [(0, 2), (1, 1), (2, 0)]
100
101
                 , [(0, 3), (1, 2), (2, 1), (3, 0)]
102
                 , [(0, 4), (1, 3), (2, 2), (3, 1), (4, 0)]])
103
```

Go to Activity

6.3 Fold Family

- foldr captures a common pattern of combining elements of a list
- Consider sum and product

```
sum01 :: Num a => [a] -> a
sum01 [] = 0
sum01 (x:xs) = x + sum01 xs

product01 :: Num a => [a] -> a
product01 [] = 1
product01 (x:xs) = x * product01 xs
```

• We abstract out the common pattern:

```
foldr01 f v [] = v
foldr01 f v (x:xs) = f x (foldr01 f v xs)
```

• We now can define:

```
sum02 xs = foldr01 (+) 0 xs
product02 xs = foldr01 (*) 1 xs
```

foldr takes an operator (⊗), a final value * and a list xs

```
\begin{array}{c}
\text{foldr} (\otimes) \star [x_1, x_2, \dots, x_n] \\
= x_1 \otimes (x_2 \otimes (\dots (x_n \otimes \star) \dots))
\end{array}
```

- The operator (8) is substituted for each list constructor (:)
- The final value ★ is substituted for the empty list []
- The function is called *fold right* because of the direction of the bracketing
- Beware operator associativity

Further Foldr Examples

- or takes a list of Booleans and finds the disjunction of all the values
- Recursive version followed by foldr version

- and takes a list of Booleans and finds the conjunction of all the values
- Recursive version followed by foldr version

```
and01 :: [Bool] -> Bool
and01 [] = True
and01 (x:xs) = x && and01 xs
```

- foldr is more general than you might expect
- length takes a list and returns its length

Health warning: length is more general than shown here

Recursive version followed by foldr version

reverse takes a list and returns the reverse

Recursive version followed by foldr version

```
reverse01 :: [a] -> [a]
reverse01 [] = []
reverse01 (x:xs) = reverse01 xs ++ [x]

reverse02 xs = foldr01 snoc [] xs
where snoc x xs = xs ++ [x]
```

Type of foldr01

As we have defined foldr01 it has the type

```
82 foldr01 :: (a -> b -> b) -> b -> [a] -> b
```

• Without the later examples you may have thought it was

```
foldr01 :: (a -> a -> a) -> a -> [a] -> a
```

• The GHC Prelude has a more general version since this pattern of computation can be performed over more data types than just lists — see later

7 User Defined Data Types

7.1 Algebraic Datatypes

- Haskell provides a way of providing new concrete data types by declaring the names of a type and names of the elements of the type
- The names of a type is called a type constructor
- The names of elements of a type is called a data constructor
- Example: Day for days of the week

```
data Day
= Monday | Tuesday | Wednesday | Thursday
| Friday | Saturday | Sunday
deriving (Show, Read, Eq, Ord, Enum, Bounded)
```

- Names of type constructors start with upper case letters
- Names of data constructors start with upper case letters but symbolic infix constructors can be formed
- The deriving clause creates automatic instances of the type classes Show, Read, Eq, Ord, Enum, Bounded
- tomorrow takes a Day and returns the next

```
tomorrow dy
if dy == Sunday then Monday else succ dy

tomorrow01 :: Day -> Day
tomorrow01 dy
tomorrow01 dy
tomorrow01 dy
tomorrow01 dy
tomorrow01 dy
```

- Note that tomorrow01 requires the type signature (or type annotation) otherwise toEnum and fromEnum would not know which type
- The brackets are required since 'mod' has precedence 7, the same as (*),(/)
- Several provided types are defined this way

```
data Bool = False | True
deriving (Show, Read, Eq, Ord, Enum, Bounded)
```

ullet Note that Day has 8 elements, Bool has 3 elements since undefined (bottom, $oldsymbol{\perp}$) is a member of every type

7.1.1 Standard Haskell Types

- We have already met characters, strings, numbers and Bool
- Lists are an algebraic data type with a special syntax it is as if it had the following declaration

• Tuples are an algebraic data type with special syntax — for pairs the single constructor is (,)

```
GHCi> (3,5) == (,) 3 5
True
GHCi> :t (,)
(,) :: a -> b -> (a, b)
```

The Unit datatype () has only one non-⊥ member, the nullary constructor ()

```
data () = ()
    deriving (Eq,Ord,Bounded,Enum,Read,Show)
```

- Function types functions are an abstract type no constructors directly create functional values.
- The Maybe datatype provides a simple optional value useful for error handling here is the declaration and the maybe function as an example usage

```
data Maybe a = Nothing | Just a
    deriving (Eq,Ord)

maybe :: b -> (a -> b) -> Maybe a -> b
maybe n f Nothing = n
maybe n f (Just x) = f x
```

The Either datatype provides for richer error handling

```
data Either a b = Left a | Right b
    deriving (Eq, Ord, Read, Show)

either :: (a -> c) -> (b -> c) -> Either a b -> c
either f g (Left x) = f x
either f g (Right y) = g y
```

8 Algebraic Data Type Exercises

8.1 Algebraic Data Type Exercises S0607 Q1

Here is an algebraic data type representing temperature

```
data Temperature

= Celsius Float | Fahrenheit Float | Kelvin Float

deriving (Eq,Show,Read)
```

- Write the following functions
- tempToCelsius takes a temperature and converts it to Celsius
- tempToFahrenheit takes a temperature and converts it to Fahrenheit

131

132

- tempToKelvin takes a temperature and converts it to Kelvin
- The formulas are at Conversion of units of temerature

Go to Algebraic Data Type Exercises S0607 A 1

8.2 Algebraic Data Type Exercises S0607 A1

```
tempToCelsius (Celsius x) = Celsius x
97
98
       tempToCelsius (Fahrenheit x) = Celsius ((x - 32)*5/9)
       tempToCelsius (Kelvin x) = Celsius (x - 273.15)
99
       tempToFahrenheit (Celsius x) = Fahrenheit (x*9/5 + 32)
101
102
       tempToFahrenheit (Fahrenheit x)
103
        = Fahrenheit x
104
       tempToFahrenheit (Kelvin x) = Fahrenheit (x*9/5 - 459.67)
        -459.67 = -273.15*9/5 + 32
105
107
       tempToKelvin (Celsius x) = Kelvin (x + 273.15)
       tempToKelvin (Fahrenheit x)
108
        = Kelvin ((x + 459.672)*5/9)
109
       tempToKelvin (Kelvin x) = Kelvin x
110
112
       temp01 = Celsius 0
       temp02 = Kelvin 0
113
       temp03 = Fahrenheit 0
114
115
       temp04 = Celsius 100
117
       temps = [temp01, temp02, temp03, temp04]
       tempConvs = [tempToCelsius,tempToFahrenheit,tempToKelvin]
118
120
       test03 = [f x | f \leftarrow tempConvs, x \leftarrow temps]
121
       test03out
        = [Celsius 0.0, Celsius (-273.15), Celsius (-17.777779), Celsius 100.0
122
123
          ,Fahrenheit 32.0,Fahrenheit (-459.67),Fahrenheit 0.0,Fahrenheit 212.0
          ,Kelvin 273.15,Kelvin 0.0,Kelvin 255.37332,Kelvin 373.15]
124
       test04 = [[f x | f \leftarrow tempConvs] | x \leftarrow temps]
127
128
       test04out
        = [[Celsius 0.0, Fahrenheit 32.0, Kelvin 273.15]
129
          ,[Celsius (-273.15),Fahrenheit (-459.67),Kelvin 0.0]
130
```

Go to Algebraic Data Type Exercises S0607 Q 1

8.3 Algebraic Data Type Exercises S0607 Q2

,[Celsius (-17.777779),Fahrenheit 0.0,Kelvin 255.37332],[Celsius 100.0,Fahrenheit 212.0,Kelvin 373.15]]

• Here is a (very) simple family database

```
134
       data Person = Person {name :: String
                                ,father :: Maybe Person
135
                                ,mother :: Maybe Person}
136
137
              deriving (Eq,Show,Read)
                = Person "Phil" (Just ron) (Just hilda)
= Person "Beryl" Nothing (Just dora)
140
       bervl
                = Person "Ron" (Just joe) (Just jane)
141
       ron
                = Person "Hilda"
142
       hilda
                                    (Just sam) (Just florrie)
                = Person "Dora" (Just arthur) (Just hannah)
       dora
143
                = Person "Joseph" Nothing Nothing
= Person "Jane" Nothing Nothing
144
       joe
145
       jane
                = Person "Sam" Nothing Nothing
146
       sam
       florrie = Person "Florence" Nothing Nothing
147
       arthur = Person "Arthur" Nothing Nothing
148
       hannah = Person "Hannah" Nothing Nothing
149
```

```
people = [phil,beryl,ron,hilda,dora,joe,jane,sam,florrie,arthur,hannah]
```

- In the data, Nothing represents a missing value
- Write a function nameStr which takes a Maybe Person and returns the name if present otherwise the string "Unknown"
- Use the standard Prelude function maybe see GHC Prelude note you can search
 quickly by typing s try it, it's neat (it is part of Hackage)

```
nameStr :: Maybe Person -> String
```

 Write a function nameMbe which takes a Maybe Person and returns the name (if known) as a Maybe String

```
nameMbe :: Maybe Person -> Maybe String
```

Go to Algebraic Data Type Exercises S0607 A 2

8.4 Algebraic Data Type Exercises S0607 A2

nameStr

```
nameStr mPers = maybe "Unknown" name mPers
```

nameMbe

```
nameMbe (Just pers) = Just (name pers)
nameMbe Nothing = Nothing
```

Go to Algebraic Data Type Exercises S0607 Q 2

8.5 Algebraic Data Type Exercises S0607 Q3

• Write a function maternalGrandfather01 that takes a Person and returns their maternal grandfather (if known)

```
maternalGrandfather01 :: Person -> Maybe Person
```

• Write a function paternalGrandfather01 that takes a Person and returns their maternal grandfather (if known)

```
paternalGrandfather01 :: Person -> Maybe Person
```

Go to Algebraic Data Type Exercises S0607 A 3

8.6 Algebraic Data Type Exercises S0607 A3

• maternalGrandfather01

```
maternalGrandfather01 p
161
        = case mother p of
162
163
            Nothing -> Nothing
164
            Just mum ->
165
              case father mum of
166
                Nothing -> Nothing
                Just mgf ->
167
168
                   Just mgf
```

• paternalGrandfather01

```
169
       paternalGrandfather01 p
        = case father p of
170
            Nothing -> Nothing
171
172
            Just dad ->
              case father dad of
173
174
                 Nothing -> Nothing
                 Just pgf ->
175
                  Just pgf
176
```

Go to Algebraic Data Type Exercises S0607 Q 3

8.7 Algebraic Data Type Exercises S0607 Q4

• Write a function bothGrandfathers01 that takes a Person and returns a pair of grandfathers, if they both exist

```
bothGrandfathers01 :: Person
-> Maybe (Person, Person)
```

Go to Algebraic Data Type Exercises S0607 A 4

8.8 Algebraic Data Type Exercises S0607 A4

• bothGrandfathers01

```
179
       bothGrandfathers01 p
        = case father p of
180
           Nothing -> Nothing
181
182
           Just dad ->
183
            case father dad of
             Nothing -> Nothing
184
185
             Just gf1 ->
              case mother p of
186
187
               Nothing -> Nothing
                Just mum ->
188
                  case father mum of
189
190
                   Nothing -> Nothing
                   Just gf2 ->
191
                    Just (gf1, gf2)
192
```

- In each of the last three examples we had a common pattern:
- If a computation fails at any point we return Nothing
- If it succeeds we pass the value on to the next stage
- Finally we return a value wrapped in a Maybe value
- Haskell captures this pattern with two functions

```
(>>=) :: Maybe a -> (a -> Maybe b) -> Maybe b
Nothing >>= g = Nothing
Just x >>= g = g x
-- (>>=) is spoken as \emph{bind}
return :: a -> Maybe a
return x = Just x
```

• We now rewrite the previous three functions:

```
194
       maternalGrandfather02 p
        = mother p >>= father
195
197
       paternalGrandfather02 p
        = father p >>= father
198
       bothGrandfathers02 p
200
201
        = father p >>=
             (\dad -> father dad >>=
202
               (\gf1 -> mother p >>=
203
204
                 (\mum -> father mum >>=
205
                   (\qf2 \rightarrow return (qf1,qf2)
206
```

• Haskell further provides the do notation to reduce syntactic clutter

```
do {p} = p
do {p;stmnts} = p >> do {stmnts}
do {x <- p;stmnts} = p >>= \x -> do {stmnts}
```

```
(>>) :: Maybe a -> Maybe b -> Maybe b
m >> n = m >>= \x -> n
-- (>>) is spoken then
```

- (>>) is a convenience function that sequences two computational contexts where the second does not involve the value carried in the first
- We can now give the brief form of bothGrandfathers
- Note that the offside rule means we can dispense with (;) or choose not to
- Without (;)

```
bothGrandfathers03 p = do

dad <- father p

gf1 <- father dad

mum <- mother p

gf2 <- father mum

return (gf1,gf2)
```

• With (;) — what does it look like?

```
bothGrandfathers04 p = do {
    dad <- father p;
    gf1 <- father dad;
    mum <- mother p;
    gf2 <- father mum;
    return (gf1,gf2);
}</pre>
```

- The last two examples look like code snippets from an imperative language
- The expression father p which has type Maybe Person is interpreted as a statement in an imperative language that returns a Person as a result or fails
- Under this interpretation, the then, (>>) operator is an an implementation of the semicolon

• The bind, (>>=) operator is an an implementation of the semicolon and assignment (binding) of the result of a previous computational step

Go to Algebraic Data Type Exercises S0607 Q 4

8.9 Algebraic Data Type Exercises S0607 Q5

 Write a function bothGFNames that takes a Person and returns the names of both grandfathers, if they both are known

```
bothGFNames :: Person
-> Maybe (String, String)
```

Go to Algebraic Data Type Exercises S0607 A 5

8.10 Algebraic Data Type Exercises S0607 A5

bothGFNames long version

```
bothGFNames p
225
226
        = case father p of
           Nothing -> Nothing
227
228
           Just dad ->
            case father dad of
229
230
             Nothing -> Nothing
             Just gf1 ->
231
232
              case mother p of
233
               Nothing -> Nothing
234
               Just mum ->
                  case father mum of
235
236
                   Nothing -> Nothing
                   Just gf2 ->
237
                    Just (name gf1, name gf2)
238
```

bothGFNames with return and bind, (>>=)

```
bothGFNames01 :: Person
240
                         -> Maybe (String, String)
       bothGFNames01 p
242
        = father p >>=
243
244
            (\dad -> father dad >>=
               (\gf1 -> mother p >>=
245
246
                (\mum -> father mum >>=
                   (\gf2 -> return (name gf1,name gf2)
247
             ))))
248
```

• bothGFNames with do notation

```
bothGFNames02 :: Person
250
251
                         -> Maybe (String, String)
       bothGFNames02 p = do
252
253
         dad <- father p
         gf1 <- father dad
254
255
         mum <- mother p
256
         gf2 <- father mum
257
         return (name gf1, name gf2)
```

• bothGFNames with do notation and explicit (;), ({), (})

```
bothGFNames03 :: Person
-> Maybe (String, String)

bothGFNames03 p = do {
    dad <- father p;
    gf1 <- father dad;
```

```
264 mum <- mother p;
265 gf2 <- father mum;
266 return (name gf1,name gf2);
267 }
```

Go to Algebraic Data Type Exercises S0607 Q 5

8.11 Algebraic Data Type Exercises S0607 Q6

• Write eitherGFNames which takes a Person and returns a pair of names if either or both or none are known

```
eitherGrandfather
:: Person -> (Maybe String, Maybe String)
```

Go to Algebraic Data Type Exercises S0607 A 6

8.12 Algebraic Data Type Exercises S0607 A6

• Posible answer

```
272
       maternalGrandfather :: Person -> Maybe Person
      maternalGrandfather p = do
273
274
        mum <- mother p
275
         gfm <- father mum
         return gfm
276
278
       paternalGrandfather :: Person -> Maybe Person
279
       paternalGrandfather p = do
         dad <- father p
280
         gfp <- father dad
281
282
         return gfp
       -- eitherGrandfather
284
            :: Person -> (Maybe Person, Maybe Person)
285
      eitherGrandfather p
286
         = (nameMbe (maternalGrandfather p)
287
           ,nameMbe (paternalGrandfather p))
```

Go to Algebraic Data Type Exercises S0607 Q 6

8.13 Laws for return and bind

- The return and bind, (>>=) functions are provided by Haskell since they are much more general than just being used for the Maybe a datatype
- They are provided by a type class
- Any instance must obey the following laws

```
return x >>= f = f x -- left unit
m >>= return = m -- right unit
(m >>= f) >>= g = m >>= (\x -> f x >>= g)
-- associativity
```

• These laws ensure that the *instance* of this *type class* works as expected and fits with other instances (and other type classes)

- Exercise: verify the laws for the definitions of return and bind, (>>=) for the Maybe a type
- The return and bind, (>>=) verification of laws

```
return x >>= f
        → Just x >>= f
       → f x
 3
 5
       m >>= return
       Nothing >>= return → Nothing (= m)
 6
       Just x \gg = return \rightarrow return x \rightarrow Just x (= m)
       (m >>= f) >>= g
 9
       (Nothing >= f) >= g \rightarrow Nothing <math>>= g \rightarrow Nothing
10
       (Just x \gg f) \Rightarrow g \rightarrow f x \gg g
11
       m \gg (x \rightarrow f x \gg g)
13
       Nothing >= (\x -> f x >>= g) \rightarrow Nothing
14
       Just x \gg (x - f x \gg g)
15
       \rightarrow (\x -> f x >>= g) x
16
       \rightarrow f x >>= g
```

- The examples above come from Haskell Wikibook: Understanding Monads
- We are being a bit premature and introducing the Maybe a instance of the Monad type class as a motivating example (it is meant to look useful)
- This pattern of computation is very common (it encapsulates just about all imperative programming)
- **Return as a neutral element** the behaviour of **return** is specified by the left and right unit laws **return** does not perform computation, it just collects values
- **Associativity of bind** this makes sure that the bind operator (like the semicolon) only cares about the order of computations not about their nesting

9 Tree Data Types

9.1 Binary Trees and Recursion Schemes

- Binary trees appear in lots of applications and have common patterns of recursive definitions fr many functions
- In imperative, procedural programming, common patterns of control flow with GO-TOs were astracted out with structured programming in the 1970s — sequence, selection and iteration — which required new language constructs
- In functional programming, we can often express new constructions and abstractions as higher-order functions
- This decouples *how* a function recurses over data from *what* the function actually does
- Whilst it takes some effort to learn about the common patterns and their higherorder functions, there are several advantages (as there are for any abstraction)
- We can discover general properties of the abstraction and hence infer properties of specific instances for free.

• We can also use the general properties to calculate functions

9.2 Binary Trees: Data Types and Examples

We shall (mainly) use the following algebraic data type for binary trees

```
data BinTree a
= EmptyBT | NodeBT a (BinTree a)
deriving (Eq, Show, Read)

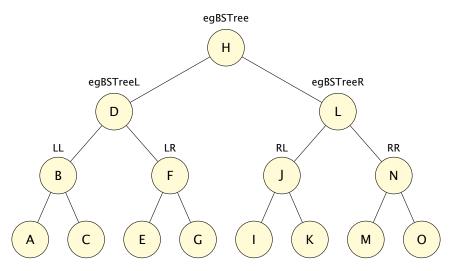
data BinTree a

= EmptyBT | NodeBT a (BinTree a)
deriving (Eq, Show, Read)
```

• We also declare a Letter algebraic data type for convenience

```
295
data Letter
296 = A|B|C|D|E|F|G|H|I|J|K|L|M|N|O
297 deriving (Eq, Ord, Enum, Bounded, Show, Read)
```

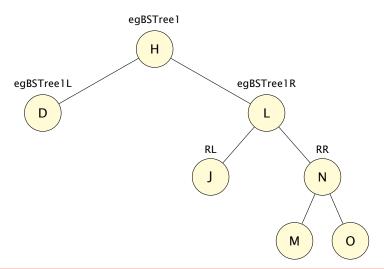
9.2.1 Example Binary Tree: egBSTree



• Name convention: variables must start with lower case so we have eg (for example, exempli gratia), BSTree indicates this is not just a Binary Tree but also a Binary Search Tree

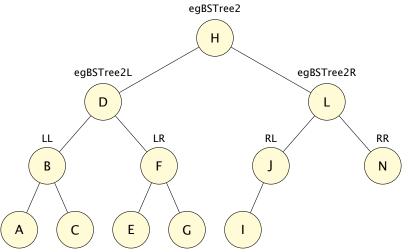
```
299
       egBSTree :: BinTree Letter
       egBSTree
300
         = NodeBT H
301
              (NodeBT D
302
                (NodeBT B
303
                   (NodeBT A EmptyBT EmptyBT)
304
                   (NodeBT C EmptyBT EmptyBT))
305
                (NodeBT F
306
307
                   (NodeBT E EmptyBT EmptyBT)
                   (NodeBT G EmptyBT EmptyBT))
308
309
              (NodeBT L
310
                (NodeBT J
311
312
                   (NodeBT I EmptyBT EmptyBT)
                   (NodeBT K EmptyBT EmptyBT))
313
314
315
                   (NodeBT M EmptyBT EmptyBT)
                   (NodeBT O EmptyBT EmptyBT))
316
              )
317
```

9.2.2 Example Binary Tree: egBSTree1



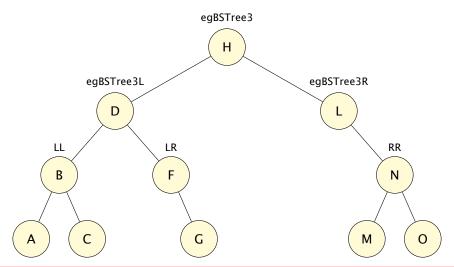
```
egBSTree1 :: BinTree Letter
319
320
       egBSTree1
321
         = NodeBT H
              (NodeBT D EmptyBT EmptyBT)
322
323
              (NodeBT L
                (NodeBT J EmptyBT EmptyBT)
324
                 (NodeBT N
325
326
                    (NodeBT M EmptyBT EmptyBT)
                    (NodeBT 0 EmptyBT EmptyBT)))
327
```

9.2.3 Example Binary Tree: egBSTree2



```
egBSTree2 :: BinTree Letter
329
       egBSTree2
330
331
         = NodeBT H
332
             (NodeBT D
                 (NodeBT B
333
                    (NodeBT A EmptyBT EmptyBT)
334
335
                    (NodeBT C EmptyBT EmptyBT))
                 (NodeBT F
336
                    (NodeBT E EmptyBT EmptyBT)
337
                    (NodeBT G EmptyBT EmptyBT)))
338
             (NodeBT L
339
340
                 (NodeBT J
                    (NodeBT I EmptyBT EmptyBT)
341
                    EmptyBT)
342
343
                 (NodeBT N EmptyBT EmptyBT))
```

9.2.4 Example Binary Tree: egBSTree3



```
egBSTree3 :: BinTree Letter
345
346
       egBSTree3
347
         = NodeBT H
              (NodeBT D
348
349
                (NodeBT B
                   (NodeBT A EmptyBT EmptyBT)
350
                   (NodeBT C EmptyBT EmptyBT))
351
                (NodeBT F
352
                   EmptyBT
353
                   (NodeBT G EmptyBT EmptyBT)))
354
              (NodeBT L
355
                 EmptyBT
356
357
                 (NodeBT N
                    (NodeBT M EmptyBT EmptyBT)
358
359
                    (NodeBT 0 EmptyBT EmptyBT)))
```

```
361
       data BinTreeL a = EmptyBTL | NodeBTL {dataItemBTL :: a
                                               ,leftBTL :: BinTreeL a
362
363
                                               ,rightTreeL :: BinTreeL a}
                          deriving (Eq,Show,Read)
364
       egBSTreeL
366
         = NodeBTL H
367
368
             (NodeBTL D
                (NodeBTL B
369
                   (NodeBTL A EmptyBTL EmptyBTL)
370
371
                   (NodeBTL C EmptyBTL EmptyBTL))
                (NodeBTL F
372
                   (NodeBTL E EmptyBTL EmptyBTL)
373
374
                   (NodeBTL G EmptyBTL EmptyBTL))
375
376
              (NodeBTL L
377
                   (NodeBTL I EmptyBTL EmptyBTL)
378
379
                   (NodeBTL K EmptyBTL EmptyBTL))
380
                (NodeBTL N
                   (NodeBTL M EmptyBTL EmptyBTL)
381
                   (NodeBTL 0 EmptyBTL EmptyBTL))
382
             )
383
```

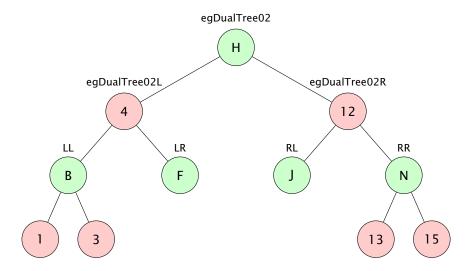
9.3 Alternative Tree Types

• In computing, trees can come in many forms. There can be trees with data only at the leaves, data only in the internal nodes, data of different types in alternate levels (useful for game trees), or multiway trees

```
385
       data LeafTree a = LeafLT a
                    | NodeLT a (LeafTree a) (LeafTree a)
386
387
                   deriving (Eq, Show, Read)
       data IntlTree a = LeafIT a
388
                    | NodeIT a (IntlTree a) (IntlTree a)
389
390
                   deriving (Eq, Show, Read)
391
       data DualTree a b = LeafDT a
                    | NodeDT a (DualTree b a) (DualTree b a)
392
                   deriving (Eq, Show, Read)
393
       data RoseTree a = LeafRT a [RoseTree a]
394
395
                   deriving (Eq, Show, Read)
```

- Exercise: give an example of DualTree Letter Integer
- Examples of DualTree Letter Integer

```
egDualTree01
397
398
         = LeafDT H
       egDualTree02
400
401
         = NodeDT H
             (NodeDT 4 (NodeDT B (LeafDT 1) (LeafDT 3))
402
                        (LeafDT F))
403
404
             (NodeDT 12 (LeafDT J)
                         (NodeDT N (LeafDT 13) (LeafDT 15)))
405
       egDualTree03
407
         = NodeDT 8
408
             (NodeDT D (NodeDT 2 (LeafDT A) (LeafDT C))
409
                         (LeafDT 6))
410
             (NodeDT L (LeafDT 10)
411
                         (NodeDT 14 (LeafDT M) (LeafDT 0)))
412
```



10 Tree Data Type Exercises

• These exercises or short topics are aimed at illustrating common patterns of recursion in tree structures and showing how the fold family of functions naturally extends to tree structures (or any algebraic data type)

10.1 Tree Data Type Exercises S0607 Q1

• Write functions inOrderBT01, preOrderBT01, postOrderBT01 which tak a BinTree a and returns in order, pre order, post order traversals of the tree

```
inOrderBT01 :: BinTree a -> [a]

preOrderBT01 :: BinTree a -> [a]

postOrderBT01 :: BinTree a -> [a]
```

Go to Tree Exs S0607 A 1

10.2 Tree Data Type Exercises S0607 A1

Here are the usual recursive definitions

```
419
       inOrderBT01 EmptyBT = []
       inOrderBT01 (NodeBT x leftBT rightBT)
420
421
        = (inOrderBT01 leftBT)
          ++ [x] ++ (inOrderBT01 rightBT)
422
       preOrderBT01 EmptyBT = []
424
       preOrderBT01 (NodeBT x leftBT rightBT)
425
426
        = [x]
          ++ (preOrderBT01 leftBT) ++ (preOrderBT01 rightBT)
427
429
       postOrderBT01 EmptyBT = []
       postOrderBT01 (NodeBT x leftBT rightBT)
430
431
        = (postOrderBT01 leftBT)
          ++ (postOrderBT01 rightBT) ++ [x]
432
```

- Each of the functions has a common pattern
- The constructors of the algebraic data type are replaced by functions (or a value) that *consume* or *transform* the data structure
- This is a generalisation of the fold function given in S0405 for lists

```
foldBinTree
:: (a -> b -> b -> b) -> b -> BinTree a -> b

foldBinTree fNodeBT fEmptyBT EmptyBT = fEmptyBT
foldBinTree fNodeBT fEmptyBT (NodeBT x leftT rightT)
= fNodeBT x (foldBinTree fNodeBT fEmptyBT leftT)
(foldBinTree fNodeBT fEmptyBT rightT)
```

We now define the traversal functions in terms of the fold function

```
inOrderFoldBT :: BinTree a -> [a]
inOrderFoldBT t
= foldBinTree
fNodeBTToInOrderList fEmptyBTToInOrderList t

fEmptyBTToInOrderList = []
fNodeBTToInOrderList x leftTList rightTList
= leftTList ++ [x] ++ rightTList
```

```
preOrderFoldBT :: BinTree a -> [a]
451
452
       preOrderFoldBT t
         = foldBinTree
453
            fNodeBTToPreOrderList fEmptyBTToPreOrderList t
454
       fEmptvBTToPreOrderList = []
456
       fNodeBTToPreOrderList x leftTList rightTList
457
         = [x] ++ leftTList ++ rightTList
458
       postOrderFoldBT :: BinTree a -> [a]
       postOrderFoldBT t
461
         = foldBinTree
462
            fNodeBTToPostOrderList fEmptyBTToPostOrderList t
463
```

Go to Tree Exs S0607 Q 1

10.3 Tree Data Type Exercises S0607 Q2

- A level order traversal takes a tree and returns the list of lists of items at each level
- In the Binary Trees notes, the final functional definition:

```
levelOrderBT :: BinTree a -> [[a]]
469
470
       levelOrderBT EmptyBT = []
       levelOrderBT (NodeBT x leftT rightT)
471
472
         = [x] : longZipWith (++)
473
                  (levelOrderBT leftT)
474
                  (levelOrderBT rightT)
476
       longZipWith :: (a -> a -> a) -> [a] -> [a] -> [a]
       longZipWith f [] ys
477
                                = ys
       longZipWith f (a:xs) [] = (a:xs)
       longZipWith f (a:xs) (b:ys)
479
        = (f a b) : (longZipWith f xs ys)
480
```

• Define level order as a fold

Go to Tree Exs S0607 A 2

10.4 Tree Data Type Exercises S0607 A2

```
levelOrderFoldBT :: BinTree a -> [[a]]
482
       levelOrderFoldBT t
483
484
        = foldBinTree
           fNodeBTToLevelOrder fEmptyBTToLevelOrder t
485
       fEmptyBTToLevelOrder = []
487
489
       fNodeBTToLevelOrder :: a -> [[a]] -> [[a]] -> [[a]]
       fNodeBTToLevelOrder x leftTOrder rightTOrder
490
        = [x] : longZipWith (++)
491
           leftTOrder rightTOrder
```

```
GHCi> levelOrderFoldBT egBSTree
[[H],[D,L],[B,F,J,N],[A,C,E,G,I,K,M,O]]
GHCi> levelOrderFoldBT egBSTree1
[[H],[D,L],[J,N],[M,O]]
```

Go to Tree Exs S0607 Q 2

10.5 Tree Data Type Exercises S0607 Q3

- Using a fold, define heightBT which returns the height of a tree
- here is the usual recursive definition

```
heightBT :: BinTree a -> Int

heightBT EmptyBT = 0
heightBT (NodeBT x leftT rightT)
= 1 + max (heightBT leftT) (heightBT rightT)
```

Go to Tree Exs S0607 A 3

10.6 Tree Data Type Exercises S0607 A3

```
heightFoldBT t
= foldBinTree
fNodeBTToHeight fEmptyBTToHeight t

fEmptyBTToHeight = 0
fNodeBTToHeight x leftTHeight rightTHeight
= 1 + max leftTHeight rightTHeight
```

```
GHCi> heightBT egBSTree
4
GHCi> heightFoldBT egBSTree
4
```

Go to Tree Exs S0607 Q 3

10.7 Tree Data Type Exercises S0607 Q4

- Using a fold, define sizeBT which returns the size of a tree
- · Here is the usual recursive definition

```
sizeBT :: BinTree a -> Int

sizeBT EmptyBT = 0
sizeBT (NodeBT x leftT rightT)
= 1 + (sizeBT leftT) + (sizeBT rightT)
```

Go to Tree Exs S0607 A 4

10.8 Tree Data Type Exercises S0607 A4

```
sizeFoldBT t
= foldBinTree
fNodeBTToSize fEmptyBTToSize t

fEmptyBTToSize = 0
fNodeBTToSize x leftTSize rightTSize
= 1 + leftTSize + rightTSize
```

```
GHCi> sizeBT egBSTree
15
GHCi> sizeFoldBT egBSTree
15
```

Go to Tree Exs S0607 Q 4

10.9 Tree Data Type Exercises S0607 Q5

Write a function numLeavesBT which takes a tree and returns the number of leaves
 a leaf is a node with two empty subtrees

```
517
       isEmptyBT EmptyBT = True
       isEmptyBT (NodeBT x leftT rightT) = False
518
       isBothEmptyBT t1 t2
520
        = isEmptyBT t1 && isEmptyBT t2
521
       numLeavesBT EmptyBT = 0
523
       numLeavesBT (NodeBT x leftT rightT)
524
        = if isBothEmptyBT leftT rightT
525
          then 1
526
527
          else numLeavesBT leftT
               + numLeavesBT rightT
528
```

Write numLeavesFoldBT which uses foldBinTree

Go to Tree Exs S0607 A 5

10.10 Tree Data Type Exercises S0607 A5

• We calculate the function using the *Universal Property*

```
numLeaves t = fold f v t
numLeaves EmptyBT = v
numLeaves (NodeBT x leftT rightT)
= f x leftTNL rightTNL
-- defn of numLeaves
= if isBothEmptyBT leftT rightT
then 1
else (numLeavesBT leftT)
+ (numLeaves righT)
-- Eureka step to get rid of isolated leftT, righT
= if isBothZero (numLeavesBT leftT) (numLeaves righT)
then 1
else (numLeavesBT leftT)
+ (numLeaves righT)
-- this gives us the required definition
```

```
isBothZero x y
529
530
        = x == 0 \&\& y == 0
       numLeavesFoldBT t
532
        = foldBinTree
533
           fNodeBTToNumL fEmptyBTToNumL t
534
       fEmptyBTToNumL = 0
536
       fNodeBTToNumL x leftTNL rightTNL
537
538
        = if isBothZero leftTNL rightTNL
539
          then 1
          else leftTNL + rightTNL
540
```

Go to Tree Exs S0607 Q 5

10.11 Tree Data Type Exercises S0607 Q6

The function minDepthBT can be defined recursively as

```
minDepthBT EmptyBT = 0
minDepthBT (NodeBT x leftT rightT)
= 1 + min (minDepthBT leftT) (minDepthBT rightT)
```

- This will visit every node in the tree but the computation can stop earlier
- See egBSTree1 we can stop when we meet node D

• Suggest ways of making this more efficient — this may or may not use fold

Go to Tree Exs S0607 A 6

10.12 Tree Data Type Exercises S0607 A6

 We can do this by keeping track of the depth in the tree and the minimum depth so far

```
minDepthBT01 :: BinTree a -> Int
544
545
       minDepthBT01 t
       = minD t 0 maxBound
546
          here maxBound is regarded as infinity
547
       minD :: BinTree a -> Int -> Int -> Int
548
       minD EmptyBT d m = min d m
549
       minD (NodeBT x leftT rightT) d m
550
        = if d + 1 >= m
551
552
          then m
553
          else minD leftT (d + 1) (minD rightT (d + 1) m)
```

- We can do better than this if we consider the tree level by level
- TODO: complete A 6

Go to Tree Exs S0607 Q 6

11 Recursion Schemes

- Get Height of Tree (20 August 2018) StackExchange Code Review uses catamorphism
- Practical Recursion Schemes (20 August 2018) Jared Tobin 5 September 2015
- Haskell WikiBook: Category theory (20 August 2018)
- Recursion schemes for dummies? (21 August 2018)
- Wikipedia: Recursion schemes (21 August 2018)
- An Introduction to Recursion Scheme Patrick Thomson 15 February 2014
- Recursion Schemes, Part II: A Mob of Morphisms 21 August 2015
- Recursion Schemes, Part III: Folds in Context 20 July 2016
- Recursion Schemes, Part IV: Time is of the Essence 11 October 2017
- Recursion Schemes, Part 4 1/2: Better Living Through Base Functors 24 January 2018
- Recursion Schemes, Part V: Hello, Hylomorphisms 17 April 2018 Patrick Thomson

12 Interactive Programming

12.1 I/O The Problem

- Calculating values in the language and performing actions outside the language are different
- Actions have to be performed in the correct order
- Call-by-value (or strict) functional languages take the approach of imperative languages
- I/O is *treated* as a function (even though it is a side effect)
- The language design has to specify the order of evaluation of expressions
- Suppose we have a function printChar that takes a character, prints it to standard output and returns nothing
- In imperative languages and strict functional languages, the programmer has to ensure that calls to printChar happen in the correct order
- Consider

```
xs = [printChar 'a', printChar 'b']
```

- Call-by-need (or lazy) languages (such as Haskell) do not specify order of evaluation
- The printChar calls are only performed if the elements of the list are evaluated
- length xs would return 2 but does not need to evaluate the elements of xs
- Laziness and side effects appear incompatible

12.2 I/O Solution (1)

- First version of Haskell:
- View of Program Top level program is a function from a (lazy) list (stream) of system responses returning a (lazy) list of system requests.

```
main :: [Response] -> [Request]
```

Request and Response are both ordinary algebraic data types

- This was used in the first version of Haskell
- but it has problems:

- Hard to extend since it can only be extended by changing the Request and Response types
- There is no close connection between a request and its corresponding response hence easy to write a program that gets out of step
- Even if not out of step, it is too easy to evaluate the response stream too eagerly and hence block emitting a request

12.3 Monadic I/O

- Need an abstract data type that allows us to calculate programs that have side effects in a purely functional way
- A value of type IO a is an *action* that, when *performed*, may do some input/output, before delivering a value of type a
- We distinguish between evaluating an expression and performing an action
- Sometimes actions are referred to as computations
- It is as if we have:

```
type IO a = World -> (a,World)
```

- A value of IO a is a function that takes an argument of type World and delivers a new World together with a result of type a
- We then provide some primitive operations and a small number of ways of combining the primitive operations
- The top level program is of type IO ()

```
getChar :: IO Char
putChar :: Char -> IO ()
```

- getChar, when performed, reads a character from the standard input and returns it
- putChar takes a character and returns an action which, when performed, prints the character on the standard output
- An action is a first class value
- Evaluating an action has no effect; performing an action has an effect
- To combine actions, (>>=) (spoken bind) is provided

```
(>>=) :: IO a -> (a -> IO b) -> IO b

echo :: IO ()
echo = getChar >>= putChar
```

- echo, when performed, reads a character from the standard input and prints it to the standard output.
- When a >>= f is performed, it performs action a, takes the result, applies f to it to get a new action and then performs the new action
- In the echo example, we first perform the action getChar, yielding a character c and then we perform putChar c

 To combine two actions without using the result of the first, we construct (>>) (spoken then)

```
(>>) :: I0 a -> I0 b -> I0 b
(>>) a1 a2 = a1 >>= (\x -> a2)
echoTwice :: I0 ()
echo = echo >> echo
```

- (>>) is analogous to the semicolon (;) in (some) imperative programming languages
- It is common for the second argument of (>>=) to be an explicit lambda abstraction
- Example: echoDup reads a character and prints it twice

 All the parentheses above are optional, since a lambda abstraction extends as far to the right as possible — so

```
echoDup :: IO ()
echoDup = getChar >>= \c ->
    putChar c >>
    putChar c
```

- This looks like a sequence of imperative actions and that is no coincidence the do notation (see later) mirrors an imperative program more closely
- We need one more primitive to allow us to combine several values

• The action (return v) is an action that does no I/O and immediately returns v without any side effects

```
return :: a -> IO a
```

- (return v) lifts a value of type a into the IO a data type and does nothing else
- getLine01 reads a whole line of input

 We use the name getLine01 to not conflict with the builtin getLine which is defined as

```
getLine :: IO String
getLine = hGetLine stdin
hGetLine :: Handle -> IO String
```

 hGetLine is more general and efficient — it also does some error checking – see System.IO

- A complete Haskell program defines a single I/O action of type IO ()
- The program is executed by *performing* the action
- The following example reads a line, reverses it and prints the result

- Monadic I/O can be thought of as composable action descriptions
- The essence of this style is the separation of the *composition calculations* from the composed action's *execution timeline*
- Note that (>>=) is the only (primitive) operation that combines or composes I/O actions
- There is no operator of the type $IO \ a \rightarrow a all$ we can do is feed the result of an action into another action
- This prevents the programmer bypassing the sequencing of actions

12.4 do Notation

• Haskell provides the do notation to re-write long chains of (>>) and (>>=)

```
do {e; stmnts} = e >> do {stmnts}
do {x <- e; stmnts} = e >>= \x -> do {stmnts}
do {e} = e
do {let decls; stmnts}
= let decls in do {stmnts}
```

- Layout can be used to get rid of the braces ({),(}) and semicolons (;)
- This gives monadic computations an imperative feel
- Note that x <- e binds the variable x it is not an assignment as in an imperative language

12.5 Control Structures

- Control structures such as for and while loops were invented in the 1960s as part of structured programming for imperative languages
- These required modifying the language
- However in functional programming we can build control structures out of functions in the language
- See Control.Monad
- See examples in monad-loops: avoiding writing recursive functions by refactoring
- See Control.Monad.Loops
- An infinite loop

```
forever :: IO () -> IO () forever a = a >> forever a
```

Repeat an action a number of times

```
repeatN :: Int -> IO a -> IO ()
repeatN 0 a = return ()
repeatN n a = a >> repeatN (n-1) a
```

A for loop

```
for :: [a] -> (a -> 10 ()) -> 10 ()
for [] f = return ()
for (n:ns) f = f n >> for ns f
```

- Instead of having a fixed collection of contol structures provided by the language designer, we are free to invent new ones
- This is a very powerful technique
- Another definition of for

```
for ns f = sequence_ (map f ns)

sequence_ :: [I0 a] -> I0 ()
sequence_ as = foldr (>>) (return ()) as
```

• The (_) in the name sequence_ reminds us that it throws away the results of the sub-actions

```
sequence :: [I0 a] -> I0 [a]
sequence [] = return []
sequence (a:as)
= do r <- a
    rs <- sequence as
    return (r:rs)</pre>
```

12.6 Interaction Exercises S0809 Q1

 Define putLine01 which takes a String and prints the string with a new line at the end

```
putLine01 :: String -> 10 ()
```

Go to Interaction Exercises S0809 A 1

12.7 Interaction Exercises S0809 A1

We first define putStr01

```
putStr01 :: String -> IO ()
putStr01 [] = return ()
putStr01 (x : xs)
putStr01 (x : xs)
= putChar x >>
putStr01 xs
```

...and just add a newline

12.8 Monadic I/O Review

- A complete Haskell program is a single IO ()) action called main
- Note that GHCi allows various expressions at the prompt (see the GHC User Guide)
- Larger I/O actions are constructed by gluing together smaller actions with (>>=)
 and return
- An I/O action is a *first-class value*: it can be passed to a function as an argument or returned as the result of a function call; it can be stored in a data structure
- Because I/O actions are first-class values, it is easy to define new combinators in terms of existing ones.
- The Monadic data structure for I/O allows us to separate calculating values in the language from calculating effects to be performed outside the language

12.8.1 Monad Data Structure

- The Monad data structure is more generally useful and we will return to discuss its other uses in a later section
- A monad is a triple of a type constructor, m and two function return and (>>=) with types

```
(>>=) :: Monad m => m a -> (a -> m b) -> m b
return :: Monad m => a -> m a
```

These must also satisfy the following laws

```
return x >>= f == f x -- left unit
m >>= return == m -- right unit
m1 >>= (\x -> m2 >>= (\y -> m3)) -- assoc.
== (m1 >>= (\x -> m2)) >>= (\y -> m3)
```

- The above laws can also be expressed in do notation which may their meaning more obvious
- The monad laws in do notation

```
do x0 <- return x
  f x0
do f x
          -- left unit
do x < - m
  return x
do m
         -- right unit
do x <- m1
   do y < - m2 x
     m3 y
do y \leftarrow do x \leftarrow m1
           m2 x
  m3 y
                        -- associativity
do x <- m1
   y <- m2 x
   m3 y
```

The monad laws just describe how we expect imperative code to behave

```
skipAndGetA
= do unused <- getLine
    line <- getLine
    return line

skipAndGetB
= do unused <- getLine
    getLine
    getLine
</pre>
```

- We expect the above two to have the same behaviour
- Now use skipAndGet

```
main
= do answer <- skipAndGet
putStrLn answer
```

• We expect this to be the same as

```
main
= do answer <- do unused <- getLine
getLine
putStrLn answer
```

and applying associativity

```
main
= do unused <- getLine
    answer <- getLine
    putStrLn answer</pre>
```

13 Future Work

- Functional programming is having a significant impact on the mainstream
- Program construction with functions and expressions rather than commands and statements
- Functions are first-class citizens
- Higher order functions
- Powerful combining forms
- Function composition
- Lazy evaluation or non-strict semantics
- Strong polymorphic type system
- Recursion and recursion patterns
- Efficiency and pragmatic issues
- Languages such as Scala, Kotlin, Rust, Julia and others have many of these features
- Notice the interplay between ideas and particular languages and technoloies

14 Web Sites & References

- Miran Lipovača: Learn You a Haskell (LYAH) (Lipovača, 2011) written when he was a student in Ljubljana, Slovenia, well written but has no exercises. Online version
- Graham Hutton: Programming in Haskell (Hutton, 2016) aimed at beginners —
 does have sections on Monoid, Foldable, Traversable, Functor, Applicative,
 Monad without being mathematical in the formal sense.

See also Erik Meijer: C9 Lectures — Functional Programming Fundamentals

- Richard Bird: Thinking Functionally with Haskell (Bird, 2014) third edition of a classic text concentrates on derivation and transformation of functions
- Richard Bird & Jeremy Gibbons: Algorithm Design with Haskell (Bird and Gibbons, 2020) — sequel to the previous book
- Simon Thompson: Haskell The Craft of Functional Programming (Thompson, 2011)
 a lot more examples and sections on coping with error messages from GHC
- Christopher Allen & Julie Moronuki: Haskell Programming (Allen and Moronuki, 2016) Web site more formal than LYAH and does have exercises
- O'Sullivan et al: Real World Haskell (O'Sullivan et al., 2008) Web site practitioners book
- Hudak: The Haskell School of Expression (Hudak, 2000) learning Haskell through multimedia and music (Hudak was a jazz musician)

Functional Programming Papers

- Haskell
- Haskell Documentation
- Haskell 2010 Language Report
- Glasgow Haskell Compiler
- GHC User Guide
- GHC Prelude
- A History of Haskell: Being Lazy with Class (Hudak et al., 2007)
- Conception, Evolution, and Application of Functional Programming Languages (Hudak, 1989)
- Haskell vs. Ada vs. C++ vs. awk vs.... an experiment in software prototyping productivity (Hudak and Jones, 1994)
- Why Functional Programming Matters (Hughes, 1989)
- Haskore music notation -an algebra of music- (Hudak et al., 1996)

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