Functional Programming M269 Extension Tutorial

Phil Molyneux

17 May 2020

Functional Programming

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- 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

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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 MTEX
 - ► Mac OS X
- ► Learning style I read the manual before using the software (really)

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M269 Tutorial

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?

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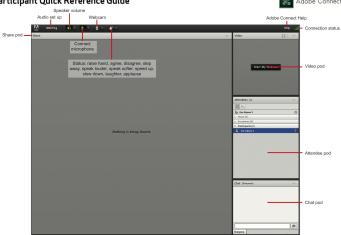
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Participant Quick Reference Guide





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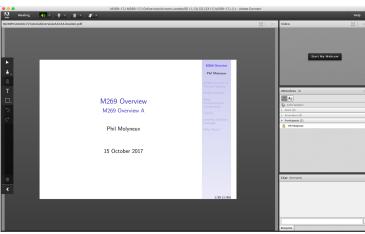
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Settings

- 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... ✓

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Access

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- TutorHome M269 Website Tutorials
- Cluster Tutorials M269 Online tutorial room
- Tutor Groups M269 Online tutor group room
- Module-wide Tutorials M269 Online module-wide 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

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Keystroke Shortcuts

- Keyboard shortcuts in Adobe Connect
- ► Toggle Raise-Hand status ∰+ E
- ► Close dialog box (Mac), Esc (Win)
- End meeting #+\

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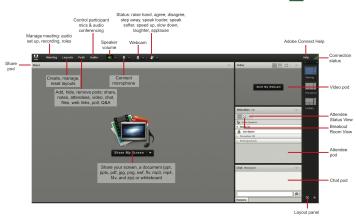
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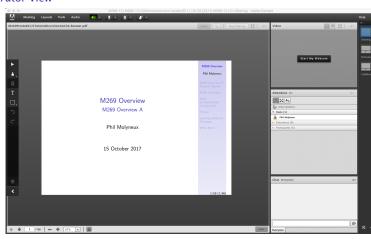
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Sharing Screen & Applications

- 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

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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

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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

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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

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Layouts

- 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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Haskell & GHC

Programming Environment

- 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)

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Haskell & GHC

Script Setup

1 module M269TutorialExtension2019J where
2 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

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```
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

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Haskell

Notation

- Function application is denoted by juxtaposition and is more binding than (almost) anything else (remember BODMAS?)
- ightharpoonup 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)

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Haskell Notation

Types

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

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Haskell Notation

Types

 \blacktriangleright 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)

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Haskell

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

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Types & Type Classes

Overview

- 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

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Types & Type Classes

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

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Lists

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
0
GHCi> 5 : [3.4]
                                      -- (:) list constructor
[5,3,4]
GHCi> :t (:)
(:) :: a -> [a] -> [a]
GHCi> head [5,3,4]
GHCi> tail [5,3,4]
[3.4]
GHCi> ["Athos"."Porthos"] ++ ["Aramis"."d'Artigan"]
["Athos", "Porthos", "Aramis", "d'Artigan"] -- (++) appends two lists
                                      -- (!!) indexes from 0
GHCi> [5.3.4] !! 2
GHCi> take 2 [5,3,4]
Γ5.31
GHCi> drop 2 [5,3,4]
[4]
```

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List Comprehensions

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

```
GHCi> [x^2 \mid x < [0..9], x \text{ '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

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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] Functional Programming

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Type Classes

- Types specify sets of elements or data constructors
- Primitive: Numbers, characters
- Builtin: Booleans, Lists, Tuples, and others
- User defined types: algebraic data type (naming the type constructor and data constructors — see LYAH chp 7), type synonyms, Datatype renamings
- ▶ Bottom, ⊥ 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

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Fouality Class

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Enumeration Class Bounded Class Read and Show Classes

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Type Classes

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

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Equality Class

```
class Eq a where
  (==), (/=) :: a -> a -> Bool
  -- Minimal complete definition
  -- (==) or (/=)
  x \neq y = not (x == y)
  x == y = not (x /= y)
```

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Ordered Class

```
class (Eq a) => Ord a where
                   :: a -> a -> Ordering
 compare
  (<),(<=),(>=),(>) :: a -> a -> Bool
 max. min
          :: a -> a -> a
  -- Minimal complete definition
  -- (<=) or compare
 compare x y
   | X == Y
              = E0
    X \leftarrow Y = LT
    otherwise = GT
 x \ll y = compare x y /= GT
 X < V = compare X V == LT
 x >= y = compare x y /= LT
 x > v = compare x v == GT
-- data Ordering = LT | EQ | GT
          deriving (Eg.Ord.Enum.Read.Show.Bounded)
```

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Ordered Class (contd)

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

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Enumeration Class

Class Enum defines operations on sequentially ordered types Functional Programming

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Enumeration Class (contd)

```
succ = toEnum . (+1) . fromEnum

pred = toEnum . (subtract 1) . fromEum

enumFrom n = map toEnum [fromEnum n ..]

enumFromThen n p
= map toEnum [fromEnum n, fromEnum p ..]

enumFromTo n m
= map toEnum [fromEnum n .. fromEnum m]

enumFromThenTo n p m
= map toEnum [fromEnum n, fromEnum p .. fromEnum m]
```

```
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)

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Haskell Standard Classes

Rounded 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

18446744073709551615

GHCi> 2^64 - 1

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Haskell Standard Classes

Read and Show Classes

GHCi> show "True"

"\"True\""

class Read a where
class Show a where

GHCi> :t read

read :: Read a => String -> a
GHCi> :t show
show :: Show a => a -> String
GHCi> read "True" :: Bool
True
GHCi> read "321" :: Int
321
GHCi> read "Just

Just True
GHCi> read "(Nothing, 321)" :: (Maybe Bool, Int)
(Nothing, 321)
GHCi> show (Just True)
"Just, True"

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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.

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Exercises

- 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

```
9 length02 xs
10 | null xs = 0
11 | otherwise = 1 + length02 (tail xs)
```

where clause

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- 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

```
length03 xs
length03 length0
```

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Function Definitions

Expression Style (2)

- Expression style:
- ► Lambda abstraction

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

case expression

```
27 length04 xs = case xs of
28 [] -> 0
29 (y : ys) -> 1 + length04 ys
```

▶ let expression

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Function Definitions

Let vs. Where

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

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Evaluating Expressions

Applying a Function t Argumnents

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]

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Higher-order Functions

Map, Filter

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

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- 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 -> b) -> [a] -> [b]
map02 f xs = [f x | x <- xs]
```

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Filter

- 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)

```
38 filter01 :: (a -> Bool) -> [a] -> [a]
39 filter01 p [] = []
40 filter01 p (x:xs)
41 = if p x
42 then x : filter01 p xs
43 else filter01 p xs
```

filter can also be defined with a list comprehension:

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

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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

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List Comprehensions

Haskell

- 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 *dec1s* for use in expr and later generators and boolean guards

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- Using list comprehensions, write a function filterStopWords that takes a list of words and filters out the stop words
- ► Here is the initial code

```
sentence \
11
     = "the quick brown fox jumps over the lazy dog"
12
14
    words = sentence.split()
    wordsTest \
16
     = (words == ['the', 'quick', 'brown'
17
                    , 'fox', 'jumps', 'over'
. 'the'. 'lazv'. 'dog'l)
18
19
    stopWords \
21
     = ['a','an','the','that']
22
```

► Go to Answer

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Activity 1 (a) Stop Words Filter

```
sentence \
11
     = "the quick brown fox jumps over the lazy dog"
12
    words = sentence.split()
14
    wordsTest \
16
     = (words == ['the', 'quick', 'brown'
17
                  , 'fox', 'jumps', 'over'
18
                  . 'the'. 'lazv'. 'dog'l)
19
    stopWords \
21
     = ['a'.'an'.'the'.'that']
22
```

- ► 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)

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- We transpose a matrix by swapping columns and rows
- Here is an example

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

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

► Go to Answer

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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

```
68 yBiasLstTest \
69 = (yBiasListing(5,5)
70 == [(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)
73 , (3, 0), (3, 1), (3, 2), (3, 3), (3, 4)
74 , (4, 0), (4, 1), (4, 2), (4, 3), (4, 4)])
```

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Exercises

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

```
81 fairLstTest \
82 = (fairListing(5,5))
83 == [(0, 0)
84 , (0, 1), (1, 0)
85 , (0, 2), (1, 1), (2, 0)
86 , (0, 3), (1, 2), (2, 1), (3, 0)
87 , (0, 4), (1, 3), (2, 2), (3, 1), (4, 0)])
```

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- 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

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Answer 1 (a) Stop Words Filter

- Answer 1 (a) Stop Words Filter
- Write here:
- Answer 1 continued on next slide

► Go to Activity

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Answer 1 (a) Stop Words Filter

Answer 1 (a) Stop Words Filter

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

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.

Answer 1 (b) Transpose Matrix

- Answer 1 (b) Transpose Matrix
- Write here:
- Answer 1 continued on next slide

▶ Go to Activity

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Answer 1 (b) Transpose Matrix

► Answer 1 (b) Transpose Matrix

```
def transMat(mat) :
    rowLen = len(mat[0])
    matTr \
    = [[row[i] for row in mat] for i in range(rowLen)]
    return matTr

transMatTestA \
    = (transMat(matrixA)
    == 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
- Answer 1 continued on next slide

► Go to Activity

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Note the differences in the list comprehensions below

```
38
    matrixA \
     = [1, 2, 3, 4]
39
       ,[5, 6, 7, 8]
       ,[9, 10, 11, 12]]
41
```

```
Python3>>> [[row[i] for row in matrixA]
                    for i in range(4)]
[[1, 5, 9], [2, 6, 10], [3, 7, 11], [4, 8, 12]]
Python3>>> [row[i] for row in matrixA
                   for i in range(4)1
. . .
[1, 2, 3, 4, 5, 6, 7, 8, 9, 10, 11, 12]
Python3>>> [row[i] for i in range(4)
                   for row in matrixAl
[1, 5, 9, 2, 6, 10, 3, 7, 11, 4, 8, 12]
Python3>>> [[row[i] for i in range(4)]
                    for row in matrixAl
[[1, 2, 3, 4], [5, 6, 7, 8], [9, 10, 11, 12]]
```

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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

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► Go to Activity

Answer 1 (c) List Pairs in Fair Order

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

```
69
   yBiasLstTest \
    = (vBiasListing(5.5)
70
         == [(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)
73
            , (3, 0), (3, 1), (3, 2), (3, 3), (3, 4)
74
            (4, 0), (4, 1), (4, 2), (4, 3), (4, 4)]
75
```

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Answer 1 (c) List Pairs in Fair Order

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

```
63
   def yBiasListing(xRng,yRng) :
      vBiasLst \
64
       = [(x,y) for x in range(xRng)
65
                for y in range(yRng)]
66
      return yBiasLst
67
   vBiasLstTest \
69
    = (yBiasListing(5,5)
70
71
         == [(0, 0), (0, 1), (0, 2), (0, 3), (0, 4)]
            (1, 0), (1, 1), (1, 2), (1, 3), (1, 4)
72
            (2, 0), (2, 1), (2, 2), (2, 3), (2, 4)
73
            (3, 0), (3, 1), (3, 2), (3, 3), (3, 4)
74
            (4, 0), (4, 1), (4, 2), (4, 3), (4, 4)])
75
```

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Answer 1 (c) List Pairs in Fair Order

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

```
83 fairLstTest \
84 = (fairListing(5,5)
85 == [(0, 0)
86 , (0, 1), (1, 0)
87 , (0, 2), (1, 1), (2, 0)
88 , (0, 3), (1, 2), (2, 1), (3, 0)
89 , (0, 4), (1, 3), (2, 2), (3, 1), (4, 0)])
```

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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
        = [(x,d-x) \text{ for d in range}(yRng)]
79
                      for x in range(d+1)]
80
       return fairLst
81
    fairLstTest \
83
84
      = (fairListing(5,5)
           == \Gamma(0, 0)
85
               (0, 1), (1, 0)
               , (0, 2), (1, 1), (2, 0)
87
               , (0, 3), (1, 2), (2, 1), (3, 0)
, (0, 4), (1, 3), (2, 2), (3, 1), (4, 0)]
88
89
```

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Answer 1 (c) List Pairs in Fair Order

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

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

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

```
46  sum01 :: Num a => [a] -> a

47  sum01 [] = 0

48  sum01 (x:xs) = x + sum01 xs

50  product01 :: Num a => [a] -> a

51  product01 [] = 1

52  product01 (x:xs) = x * product01 xs
```

We abstract out the common pattern:

```
53 foldr01 f v [] = v
54 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
```

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Foldr (contd)

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

```
foldr (\otimes) \star [x_1, x_2, ..., x_n]
= x_1 \otimes (x_2 \otimes (...(x_n \otimes \star)...))
```

- ► The operator (⊗) 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

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

```
or01 :: [Bool] -> Bool
or01 []
             = False
or01 (x:xs) = x \mid \mid or01 xs
or02 xs = foldr (||) False xs
```

- 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
64
    and01 (x:xs) = x \&\& and01 xs
65
    and 02 xs = foldr (\&\&) True xs
```

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- - 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

```
length05 :: [a] -> Int
    length05 []
70
    length05 (x:xs) = 1 + length05 xs
71
    length06 xs = foldr01 (x n \rightarrow 1 + n) 0 xs
```

reverse takes a list and returns the reverse Recursive version followed by foldr version

```
reverse01 :: [a] -> [a]
75
    reverse01 []
76
    reverse01 (x:xs) = reverse01 xs ++ [x]
77
```

```
79
    reverse02 xs = foldr01 snoc [] xs
                       where snoc x xs = xs ++ \lceil x \rceil
80
```

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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

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User Defined Types and Classes

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

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Algebraic Datatypes

Example: Days

tomorrow takes a Day and returns the next

```
tomorrow dy
for if dy == Sunday then Monday else succ dy
tomorrow01 :: Day -> Day
tomorrow01 dy
for tomerow dy
tomorrow01 dy
tomorrow01 dy
tomorrow01 dy
for tomerow dy
tomorrow01 dy
for tomerow dy
tomorrow dy
tomorrow dy
for tomorrow
```

- ► 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 (*),(/)

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Example: Bool

Several provided types are defined this way

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

Note that Day has 8 elements, Bool has 3 elements since undefined (bottom, ⊥) is a member of every type Functional Programming

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- ► 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

```
data [a] = [] | a : [a]
deriving (Eq, Ord)
```

 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)
```

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- ► 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
```

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Algebraic Data Type Exercises \$0607

Q 1

Here is an algebraic data type representing temperature

```
data Temperature
94
    = Celsius Float | Fahrenheit Float | Kelvin Float
95
       deriving (Eq.Show.Read)
96
```

- Write the following functions
- tempToCelsius takes a temperature and converts it to Celsius
- tempToFahrenheit takes a temperature and converts it to Fahrenheit
- tempToKelvin takes a temperature and converts it to Kelvin
- The formulas are at Conversion of units of temerature

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Ala A 6

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Decumeion Cal 78/164

A 1

```
97
    tempToCelsius (Celsius x) = Celsius x
    tempToCelsius (Fahrenheit x) = Celsius ((x - 32)*5/9)
98
    tempToCelsius (Kelvin x) = Celsius (x - 273.15)
99
    tempToFahrenheit (Celsius x) = Fahrenheit (x*9/5 + 32)
101
    tempToFahrenheit (Fahrenheit x)
102
     = Fahrenheit x
103
    tempToFahrenheit (Kelvin x) = Fahrenheit (x*9/5 - 459.67)
104
    --459.67 = -273.15*9/5 + 32
105
    tempToKelvin (Celsius x) = Kelvin (x + 273.15)
107
    tempToKelvin (Fahrenheit x)
108
     = Kelvin ((x + 459.672)*5/9)
109
    tempToKelvin (Kelvin x) = Kelvin x
110
```

Soln 1 continued on next slide

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> Tree Data Type Exercises Decumeion Cal 79/164

A 1 (contd)

132

```
112
     temp01 = Celsius 0
113
     temp02 = Kelvin 0
     temp03 = Fahrenheit 0
114
     temp04 = Celsius 100
115
     temps = \lceil \text{temp01.temp02.temp03.temp04} \rceil
117
     tempConvs = [tempToCelsius.tempToFahrenheit.tempToKelvin]
118
120
     test03 = [f x | f \leftarrow tempConvs. x \leftarrow temps]
121
     test03out
      = [Celsius 0.0, Celsius (-273.15), Celsius (-17.77779), Celsius 100.0
122
        , Fahrenheit 32.0, Fahrenheit (-459.67), Fahrenheit 0.0, Fahrenheit 2124901
123
        .Kelvin 273.15.Kelvin 0.0.Kelvin 255.37332.Kelvin 373.151
124
     test04 = [[f x | f \leftarrow tempConvs] | x \leftarrow temps]
127
128
     test04out
129
      = [[Celsius 0.0,Fahrenheit 32.0,Kelvin 273.15]
        ,[Celsius (-273.15), Fahrenheit (-459.67), Kelvin 0.0]
130
        .[Celsius (-17.777779).Fahrenheit 0.0.Kelvin 255.37332]
131
```

[Celsius 100.0, Fahrenheit 212.0, Kelvin 373.15]]

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Ala O 6 Ala A 6

Laws for return and bind Tree Data Types

Tree Data Type Exercises Decumeion Cal-80/1.64

Here is a (very) simple family database

```
134
    data Person = Person {name :: String
                           ,father :: Maybe Person
135
                           ,mother :: Maybe Person}
136
          deriving (Eq.Show.Read)
137
    phil
             = Person "Phil" (Just ron) (Just hilda)
139
             = Person "Bervl" Nothing (Just dora)
    bervl
140
             = Person "Ron" (Just joe) (Just jane)
141
    ron
             = Person "Hilda" (Just sam) (Just florrie)
142
    hilda
            = Person "Dora" (Just arthur) (Just hannah)
    dora
143
    ioe
             = Person "Joseph" Nothing Nothing
144
             = Person "Jane" Nothing Nothing
    iane
145
             = Person "Sam" Nothing Nothing
    sam
146
    florrie = Person "Florence" Nothing Nothing
147
    arthur = Person "Arthur" Nothing Nothing
148
    hannah = Person "Hannah" Nothing Nothing
149
150
    people
               [phil,beryl,ron,hilda,dora
               .ioe.iane.sam.florrie.arthur.hannahl
151
```

Q 2 continued on next slide

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Laws for return and bind

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O 2 (contd)

- 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

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Beausian Cal-82/1.64

A 2

```
▶ nameStr
```

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

▶ nameMbe

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

to Algebraic Data Type Exercises S060

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Q 3

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

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Pacursian Sch84/164

A 3

► maternalGrandfather01

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

▶ paternalGrandfather01

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

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Q 4

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

Go to Algebraic Data Type Exercises S0607

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A 4

bothGrandfathers01

```
bothGrandfathers01 p
179
      = case father p of
180
181
         Nothing -> Nothing
         Just dad ->
182
          case father dad of
183
           Nothing -> Nothing
184
           Just gf1 ->
185
            case mother p of
186
             Nothing -> Nothing
187
              Just mum ->
188
189
                case father mum of
                 Nothing -> Nothing
190
                 Just af2 ->
191
                  Just (gf1, gf2)
192
```

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to Algebraic Data Type Exercises S0607 Q 4

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A 4 (contd)

- 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
```

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Alg Q 6 Ala A 6

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A 4 (contd)

We now rewrite the previous three functions:

```
maternalGrandfather02 p
194
      = mother p >>= father
195
     paternalGrandfather02 p
197
      = father p >>= father
198
     bothGrandfathers02 p
200
      = father p >>=
201
          (\dad -> father dad >>=
202
            (\af1 -> mother p >>=
203
               (\mum -> father mum >>=
204
                (\qf2 -> return (qf1,qf2)
205
206
          ))))
```

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Alg A 4 Alg Q 5

Alg A 5 Alg Q 6

Alg A 6

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Haskell further provides the do notation to reduce syntactic clutter

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

```
(>>) :: Maybe a -> Maybe b -> Maybe b
m \gg n = m \gg \langle x - \rangle 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
- Soln 4 continued on next slide

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Answers

A 4 (contd)

Without (:)

```
bothGrandfathers03 p = do
208
       dad <- father p
209
       af1 <- father dad
210
       mum <- mother p
211
       af2 <- father mum
212
213
       return (gf1,gf2)
```

▶ With (:) — what does it look like?

```
bothGrandfathers04 p = do {
215
       dad <- father p ;</pre>
216
       qf1 <- father dad ;
217
       mum <- mother p :</pre>
218
       gf2 <- father mum ;
219
       return (gf1,gf2);
220
221
```

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Ala A 6

Laws for return and hind

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A 4 (contd)

- 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

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Q 5

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)
```

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Alg A 4

Alg Q 5 Alg A 5

Alg A 5 Alg Q 6

Alg A 6

Laws for return and bind
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Exercises

A 5

bothGFNames long version

```
bothGFNames p
225
      = case father p of
226
         Nothing -> Nothing
227
         Just dad ->
228
          case father dad of
229
230
           Nothing -> Nothing
           Just qf1 ->
231
            case mother p of
232
             Nothing -> Nothing
233
             lust mum ->
234
               case father mum of
235
                 Nothing -> Nothing
236
237
                 Just af2 ->
                  Just (name gf1, name gf2)
238
```

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Alg Q 6

Alg A 6

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A 5

bothGFNames with return and bind, (>>=)

```
bothGFNames01 :: Person
240
                       -> Maybe (String, String)
241
     bothGFNames01 p
242
      = father p >>=
243
          (\dad -> father dad >>=
244
245
            (\qf1 -> mother p >>=
              (\mum -> father mum >>=
246
                 (\qf2 -> return (name qf1, name qf2)
247
           ))))
248
```

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Alg A 4 Alg Q 5

Alg A 5 Alg O 6

Alg Q 6 Ala A 6

Laws for return and bind
Tree Data Types

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A 5

bothGFNames with do notation

```
bothGFNames02 :: Person
250
                       -> Maybe (String, String)
251
252
     bothGFNames02 p = do
       dad <- father p
253
       af1 <- father dad
254
255
       mum <- mother p
       gf2 <- father mum
256
       return (name qf1.name qf2)
257
```

Soln 5 continued on next slide

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Ala O 6

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Ala A 6

Laws for return and bind

Tree Data Types

A 5

```
bothGFNames03 :: Person
259
                        -> Maybe (String.String)
260
261
     bothGFNames03 p = do \{
262
       dad <- father p ;
       gf1 <- father dad ;
263
       mum <- mother p ;</pre>
264
       qf2 <- father mum ;
265
       return (name gf1, name gf2);
266
267
```

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Q 6

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

```
eitherGrandfather
269
       :: Person -> (Maybe String, Maybe String)
270
```

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A 6

Posible answer

```
maternalGrandfather :: Person -> Maybe Person
272
273
     maternalGrandfather p = do
       mum <- mother p
274
       afm <- father mum
275
       return afm
276
     paternalGrandfather :: Person -> Maybe Person
278
     paternalGrandfather p = do
279
       dad <- father p
280
       afp <- father dad
281
       return afp
282
     -- eitherGrandfather
284
          :: Person -> (Maybe Person, Maybe Person)
285
     eitherGrandfather p
286
       = (nameMbe (maternalGrandfather p)
287
         ,nameMbe (paternalGrandfather p))
288
```

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Laws for return and bind

ree Data Types

Tree Data Types
Tree Data Type

- 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
g (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

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Tree Data Types

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Laws for return and bind

Tree Data Type Exercises Laws (contd)

► The return and bind, (>>=) — verification of laws

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

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Tree Data Type

Alg A 6 Laws for return and bind

Tree Data Types

Exercises

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

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Tree Data Types

Binary Trees and Recursion Schemes

Binary trees appear in lots of applications and have common patterns of recursive definitions fr many functions

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Binary Trees and Recursion Schemes

▶ In imperative, procedural programming, common patterns of control flow with GOTOs 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 higher-order 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

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Data Types and Examples

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

data BinTree a

291

292

293

295

296

297

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

We also declare a Letter algebraic data type for convenience

data Letter = A|B|C|D|E|F|G|H|I|J|K|L|M|N|O

deriving (Eq. Ord, Enum, Bounded, Show, Read)

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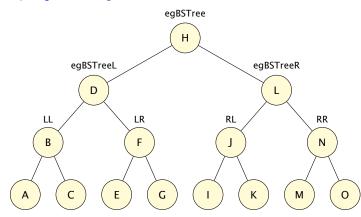
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Binary Trees: Data Types and Examples egBSTree egBSTree1 egBSTree2 eaBSTree3 Alternative Tree Types Tree Data Type Exercises Recursion Schemes Interactive Programming Future Work 105/164

Function Definitions

Example egBSTree diagram



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

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egBSTree1 egBSTree2 egBSTree3

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Example eqBSTree code

```
egBSTree :: BinTree Letter
299
     egBSTree
300
       = NodeBT H
301
            (NodeBT D
302
              (NodeBT B
303
                 (NodeBT A EmptyBT EmptyBT)
304
                 (NodeBT C EmptvBT EmptvBT))
305
306
              (NodeBT F
                 (NodeBT E EmptyBT EmptyBT)
307
                 (NodeBT G EmptyBT EmptyBT))
308
309
           (NodeBT L
310
              (NodeBT J
311
                 (NodeBT I EmptyBT EmptyBT)
312
                 (NodeBT K EmptyBT EmptyBT))
313
              (NodeBT N
314
                 (NodeBT M EmptyBT EmptyBT)
315
                 (NodeBT 0 EmptvBT EmptvBT))
316
317
```

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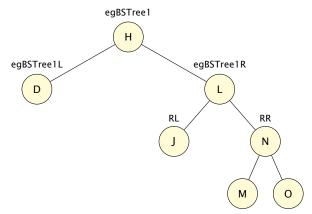
egBSTree egBSTree1 egBSTree2

eaBSTree3 Alternative Tree Types

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Example egBSTree1 diagram



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Example eqBSTree1 code

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

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egBSTree

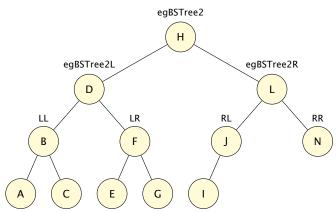
egBSTree1 egBSTree2

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Example egBSTree2



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eaBSTree3 Alternative Tree Types Tree Data Type

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Example egBSTree2 code

```
egBSTree2 :: BinTree Letter
329
      egBSTree2
330
        = NodeBT H
331
              (NodeBT D
332
                  (NodeBT B
                                                                                                   Classes
333
                      (NodeBT A EmptvBT EmptvBT)
334
                                                                                                   Function Definitions
                      (NodeBT C EmptvBT EmptvBT))
                                                                                                   - Styles
335
                  (NodeBT F
336
                                                                                                   Higher-order
                      (NodeBT E EmptyBT EmptyBT)
                                                                                                   Functions
337
                      (NodeBT G EmptyBT EmptyBT)))
338
                                                                                                   User Defined Data
              (NodeBT L
339
                                                                                                   Types
                  (NodeBT J
340
                                                                                                   Algebraic Data Type
                      (NodeBT I EmptyBT EmptyBT)
341
                                                                                                   Exercises
                      EmptyBT)
342
                                                                                                   Tree Data Types
                  (NodeBT N EmptyBT EmptyBT))
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                                                                                                    egBSTree
                                                                                                    egBSTree1
                                                                                                    egBSTree2
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```

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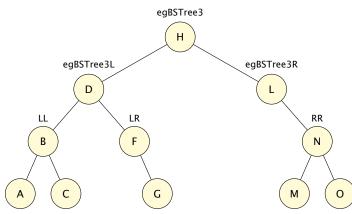
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Example egBSTree3



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Example egBSTree3 code

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

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egBSTree1

egBSTree2 eaBSTree3

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```
data leafTree a = leafIT a
361
                  NodeLT a (LeafTree a) (LeafTree a)
362
                 deriving (Eq. Show, Read)
363
    data IntlTree a = LeafIT a
364
365
                  | NodeIT a (IntlTree a) (IntlTree a)
                 deriving (Eq. Show, Read)
366
    data DualTree a b = LeafDT a
367
                  | NodeDT a (DualTree b a) (DualTree b a)
368
                 deriving (Eq, Show, Read)
369
    data RoseTree a = LeafRT a [RoseTree a]
370
                 deriving (Eq. Show, Read)
371
```

Exercise: give an example of DualTree Letter Integer Agenda

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Alternative Trees

Dual Trees Examples

Examples of DualTree Letter Integer

```
373
    egDualTree01
       = LeafDT H
374
    egDualTree02
376
       = NodeDT H
377
           (NodeDT 4 (NodeDT B (LeafDT 1) (LeafDT 3))
378
                      (LeafDT F))
379
           (NodeDT 12 (LeafDT J)
380
                       (NodeDT N (LeafDT 13) (LeafDT 15)))
381
    egDualTree03
383
       = NodeDT 8
384
           (NodeDT D (NodeDT 2 (LeafDT A) (LeafDT C))
385
                      (LeafDT 6))
386
           (NodeDT L (LeafDT 10)
387
                      (NodeDT 14 (LeafDT M) (LeafDT 0)))
388
```

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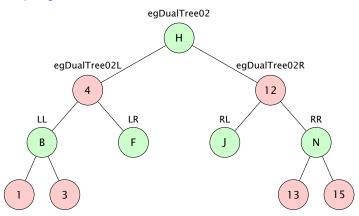
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Tree Data Type Exercises

Introduction

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) Functional Programming

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Tree A 6

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Tree Data Type Exercises S0607

Q 1

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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]
390
    preOrderBT01 :: BinTree a -> [a]
392
```

postOrderBT01 :: BinTree a -> [a]

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Tree O 3

Tree A 3

Tree O 4

Tree A 4

Tree O 5

Tree A 5

Tree O 6 Tree A 6

Recursion Schemes

Here are the usual recursive definitions.

A 1

```
395
    inOrderBT01 EmptyBT = []
396
    inOrderBT01 (NodeBT x leftBT rightBT)
     = (inOrderBT01 leftBT)
397
        ++ [x] ++ (inOrderBT01 rightBT)
398
400
    preOrderBT01 EmptyBT = []
    preOrderBT01 (NodeBT x leftBT rightBT)
401
     = [x]
402
403
        ++ (preOrderBT01 leftBT) ++ (preOrderBT01 rightBT)
    postOrderBT01 EmptyBT = []
405
    postOrderBT01 (NodeBT x leftBT rightBT)
406
     = (postOrderBT01 leftBT)
407
        ++ (postOrderBT01 rightBT) ++ [x]
408
```

Soln 1 continued on next slide

A 1 (contd)

- 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)
```

Soln 1 continued on next slide

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Recursion Schemes

Go to Tree Exs S0607 Q T

A 1 (contd)

418

419

420

421

423

424 425 We now define the traversal functions in terms of the fold function

```
inOrderFoldBT :: BinTree a -> [a]
inOrderFoldBT t
  = foldBinTree
      fNodeBTToInOrderList fEmptvBTToInOrderList t
fEmptyBTToInOrderList = []
fNodeBTToInOrderList x leftTList rightTList
  = leftTList ++ [x] ++ rightTList
```

Soln 1 continued on next slide

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Recursion Schemes

A 1 (contd)

```
preOrderFoldBT :: BinTree a -> [a]
427
    preOrderFoldBT t
428
       = foldBinTree
429
          fNodeBTToPreOrderList fEmptvBTToPreOrderList t
430
    fEmptvBTToPreOrderList = []
432
     fNodeBTToPreOrderList x leftTList rightTList
433
       = [x] ++ leftTList ++ rightTList
434
    postOrderFoldBT :: BinTree a -> [a]
436
    postOrderFoldBT t
437
       = foldBinTree
438
          fNodeBTToPostOrderList fEmptyBTToPostOrderList t
439
441
    fEmptyBTToPostOrderList = []
    fNodeBTToPostOrderList x leftTList rightTList
442
       = leftTList ++ rightTList ++ [x]
443
```

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Tree O 6 Tree A 6 Recursion Schemes

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In the Binary Trees notes, the final functional definition:

```
levelOrderBT :: BinTree a -> [[a]]
445
     levelOrderBT EmptvBT = []
446
     levelOrderBT (NodeBT x leftT rightT)
447
           [x] : longZipWith (++)
448
                  (levelOrderBT leftT)
449
                  (levelOrderBT rightT)
450
452
     longZipWith :: (a \rightarrow a \rightarrow a) \rightarrow [a] \rightarrow [a] \rightarrow [a]
     longZipWith f [] ys
453
     longZipWith f (a:xs) []
                                   = (a:xs)
454
     longZipWith f (a:xs) (b:ys)
455
      = (f a b) : (longZipWith f xs vs)
456
```

Define *level order* as a fold

► Go to Tree Exs S0607 A 2

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A 2

```
levelOrderFoldBT :: BinTree a -> [[a]]
458
     levelOrderFoldBT t
459
     = foldBinTree
460
         fNodeBTToLevelOrder fEmptvBTToLevelOrder t
461
    fEmptvBTToLevelOrder = []
463
    fNodeBTToLevelOrder :: a -> [[a]] -> [[a]] -> [[a]]
465
    fNodeBTToLevelOrder x leftTOrder rightTOrder
466
     = [x] : longZipWith (++)
467
         leftTOrder rightTOrder
468
```

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

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Tree Data Type Exercises S0607

Q 3

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

```
heightBT :: BinTree a -> Int
469
    heightBT EmptyBT = 0
471
    heightBT (NodeBT x leftT rightT)
472
     = 1 + max (heightBT leftT) (heightBT rightT)
473
```

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A 3

480

heightFoldBT t 474 = foldBinTree 475 fNodeBTToHeight fEmptyBTToHeight t 476 fEmptyBTToHeight = 0478 fNodeBTToHeight x leftTHeight rightTHeight 479

GHCi> heightBT egBSTree

GHCi> heightFoldBT egBSTree

= 1 + max leftTHeight rightTHeight

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Tree Data Type Exercises S0607

Q 4

483

484

485

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

```
sizeRT :: BinTree a -> Int
```

sizeBT EmptyBT = 0

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

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A 4

492

```
sizeFoldRT t
486
      = foldBinTree
487
         fNodeBTToSize fEmptyBTToSize t
488
     fEmptyBTToSize = 0
490
    fNodeBTToSize x leftTSize rightTSize
491
```

GHCi> sizeBT egBSTree 15

GHCi> sizeFoldBT egBSTree 15

= 1 + leftTSize + rightTSize

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Tree A 6

Recursion Schemes 128/164 Write a function numLeavesBT which takes a tree and returns the number of leaves

a leaf is a node with two empty subtrees

```
isEmptyBT EmptyBT = True
493
    isEmptvBT (NodeBT x leftT rightT) = False
494
    isBothEmptvBT t1 t2
496
     = isEmptyBT t1 && isEmptyBT t2
497
    numLeavesBT EmptvBT = 0
499
500
    numLeavesBT (NodeBT x leftT rightT)
     = if isBothEmptyBT leftT rightT
501
        then 1
       else numLeavesBT leftT
503
             + numLeavesBT rightT
504
```

Write numLeavesFoldBT which uses foldBinTree

► Go to Tree Exs S0607 A 5

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Tree A 6

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 numl eaves
 = 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
```

Soln 5 continued on next slide

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A 5 (contd)

516

else leftTNL + rightTNL

```
isBothZero x y
505
     = x == 0 & v == 0
506
     numleavesFoldBT t
508
     = foldBinTree
509
         fNodeBTToNumL fEmptvBTToNumL t
510
512
     fEmptyBTToNumL = 0
     fNodeBTToNumL x leftTNL rightTNL
513
     = if isBothZero leftTNL rightTNL
514
515
        then 1
```

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Q 6

► 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

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Recursion Schemes

```
minDepthBT01 :: BinTree a -> Int
520
    minDepthBT01 t
521
    = minD t 0 maxBound
522
    -- here maxBound is regarded as infinity
523
    minD :: BinTree a -> Int -> Int -> Int
524
    minD EmptyBT d m = min d m
525
    minD (NodeBT x leftT rightT) d m
526
527
     = if d + 1 >= m
        then m
528
        else minD leftT (d + 1) (minD rightT (d + 1) m)
529
```

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

➤ Go to Tree Exs S0607 O 6

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Recursion Schemes

Recursion Schemes

References (1)

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 Code Review uses catamorphism
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- ► Recursion schemes for dummies? (21 August 2018)
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References

Recursion Schemes

References (2)

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Input and Output

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

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S0809 Q1 Interaction Exercises S0809 A1 Monadic I/O Review 136/164 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

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- ► 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

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Input and Output

Initial Solution (2)

- 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

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Monadic I/O do Notation

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- 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 Functional Programming

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Control Structures Interaction Exercises S0809 Q1 Interaction Exercises S0809 A1 Monadic I/O Review 140/164 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

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```
(>>=) :: 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

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Monadic I/O (4)

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

```
(>>) :: IO a -> IO b -> IO b
(>>) a1 a2 = a1 >>= (\land -> a2)
echoTwice :: IO ()
echo = echo >> echo
```

(>>) is analogous to the semicolon (;) in (some) imperative programming languages

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Interaction Exercises S0809 A1 Monadic I/O Review 143/164 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 Functional Programming

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```
getTwoChars :: IO (Char,Char)
getTwoChars = getChar >>= \c1 ->
              getChar >>= \c2 ->
              return (c1,c2)
```

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

```
return :: a -> TO a
```

(return v) lifts a value of type a into the IO a data type and does nothing else

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```
getLine01 :: IO [Char]
getLine01 = getChar >>= \c ->
            if c == '\n' then
             return []
           else
             getLine01 >>= \cs ->
             return (c : cs)
```

▶ 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

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Input and Output

Monadic I/O (8)

- 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

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Input and Output

Monadic I/O (9)

- 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 -> a all we can do is feed the result of an action into another action.
- This prevents the programmer bypassing the sequencing of actions

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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</p>

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do Notation

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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

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Control Structures (2)

An infinite loop

Repeat an action a number of times

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

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Control Structures (3)

A for loop

- 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

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Control Structures (4)

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>
```

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Q 1

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

putLine01 :: String -> IO ()

Go to Interaction Exercises S080

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Interaction Exercises S0809 Answers

A 1

► We first define putStr01

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

...and just add a newline

```
putLine01 xs
= putStr01 xs >>
putChar '\n'
```

► Go to Interaction Exercises S0809 Q 1

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Monadic I/O Review 155/164 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

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Monads

Monadic 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 Functional Programming

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► 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
```

Monads

Monadic Data Structure (3)

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
</pre>
```

We expect the above two to have the same behaviour

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Monads

Monadic Data Structure (4)

► Now use skipAndGet

We expect this to be the same as

and applying associativity

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

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Future Work

Topics

- 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

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Haskell References

Textbooks

- Miran Lipovača: Learn You a Haskell (LYAH) (Lipovaca, 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, 2020) sequel to the previous book

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Textbooks (2)

- 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, 2008)
 learning Haskell through multimedia and music (Hudak was a jazz musician)

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Functional Programming Papers & Reference

- ► 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, 1996)

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