

Chapter 15

Functional Programming

Topics

- ◆ Numbers
 - Natural numbers
 - Haskell numbers
- ◆ Lists
 - List notation
 - Lists as a data type
 - List operations

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Numbers

- ◆ Haskell provides a sophisticated hierarchy of type classes for describing various kinds of numbers.
- ◆ Although (some) numbers are provided as primitive data types, it is theoretically possible to introduce them through suitable data type declarations.

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Natural Numbers

- ◆ The natural numbers are the numbers 0, 1, 2, and so on, used for counting.

- ◆ Introduced by the declaration

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

- The constructor `Succ` (short for 'successor') has type `Nat → Nat`.
- Example: as an element of `Nat` the number 7 would be represented by

```
Succ(Succ(Succ(Succ(Succ(Succ(Succ Zero))))))
```

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Natural Numbers

- ◆ Every natural number is represented by a unique value of `Nat`.
- ◆ On the other hand, not every value of `Nat` represents a well-defined natural number.
 - Example: `⊥`, `Succ ⊥`, `Succ(Succ ⊥)`
- ◆ Addition can be defined by

```
(+)      :: Nat → Nat → Nat
m + Zero  = m
m + Succ n = Succ(m + n)
```

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Natural Numbers

- ◆ Multiplication can be defined by

```
(x)      :: Nat → Nat → Nat
```

```
m x Zero  = Zero
```

```
m x Succ n = (m x n) + m
```

- ◆ `Nat` can be a member of the type class `Eq`

```
instance Eq Nat where
```

```
Zero == Zero    = True
```

```
Zero == Succ n  = False
```

```
Succ m == Zero  = False
```

```
Succ m == Succ n = (m == n)
```

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Natural Numbers

- ◆ `Nat` can be a member of the type class `Ord`

```
instance Ord Nat where
  Zero < Zero      = False
  Zero < Succ n    = True
  Succ m < Zero    = False
  Succ m < Succ n  = (m < n)
```

- ◆ Elements of `Nat` can be printed by

```
showNat      :: Nat → String
showNatZero  = "Zero"
showNat (Succ Zero) = "Succ Zero"
showNat (Succ(Succ n)) = "Succ (" ++
                          showNat (Succ n) ++ "]"
```

Haskell Numbers

- ◆ Haskell provide, as primitives, the following types:

- `Int` single-precision integers
- `Integer` arbitrary-precision integers
- `Float` single-precision floating-point numbers
- `Double` double-precision floating-point numbers
- `Rational` rational number

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The Numeric Type Classes

- ◆ The same symbols, `+`, `x`, and so on, are used for arithmetic on each numeric type.

- Overloaded functions.

- ◆ All Haskell number types are instances of the type class `Num` defined by

```
class (Eq α, Show α) ⇒ Num α where
  (+), (-), (x) :: α → α → α
  negate       :: α → α
  fromInteger  :: Integer → α
  ...
  x - y        = x + negate y
```

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Integral Types

- ◆ The members of the *Integral* type are two primitive types `Int` and `Integer`.

- ◆ The operators `div` and `mod` are provided as primitive.

- If `x` and `y` are integers, and `y` is not zero, then $x \text{ div } y = \lfloor x / y \rfloor$.

◆ $\lfloor 13.8 \rfloor = 13$, $\lfloor -13.8 \rfloor = -14$

- The value `x mod y` is defined by the equation $x = (x \text{ div } y) * y + (x \text{ mod } y)$

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Lists

- ◆ Lists can be used to fetch and carry data from one function to another.
- ◆ Lists can be taken apart, rearranged, and combined with other lists.
- ◆ Lists can be summed and multiplied.
- ◆ Lists of characters can be read and printed.
- ◆ ...

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List Notation

- ◆ A finite list is denoted using square brackets and commas.

- `[1, 2, 3]`
- `["hello", "goodbye"]`

- ◆ All the elements of a list must have the same type.

- ◆ The empty list is written as `[]`.

- ◆ A singleton list contains only one element

- `[x]`
- `[[]]` the empty list is its only member

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List Notation

- ◆ If the elements of a list all have type α , then the list itself will be assigned the type $[\alpha]$.

- `[1,2,3] :: [Int]`
- `['h','e','l','l','o'] :: [Char]`
- `[[1,2],[3]] :: [[Int]]`
- `[(+),(x)] :: [Int → Int → Int]`

- ◆ A list may contain the same value more than once.
- ◆ Two lists are equal if and only if they contain the same value in the same order.

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Lists as a data type

- ◆ A list can be constructed from scratch by starting with an empty list and successively adding elements one by one.
 - Elements can be added to the front of the list, or the rear, or to somewhere in the middle.

- ◆ Data type declaration (list):

```
data List α = Nil | Cons α (List α)
```

- The constructor `Cons` (short for 'construct') add an element to the front of the list.

```
◆ [1,2,3] = Cons 1 (Cons 2 (Cons 3 Nil))
```

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Lists as a data type

- ◆ In functional programming, lists are defined as elements of `List α`.
 - The syntax `[α]` is used instead of `List α`.
 - The constructor `Nil` is written as `[]`
 - The constructor `Cons` is written as an infix operator `(:)`
 - ◆ `(:)` associates to the right
 - ◆ `[1,2,3] = 1:(2:(3:[])) = 1:2:3:[]`

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Lists as a data type

- ◆ Like functions over data types, functions over lists can be defined by pattern matching.

```
instance (Eq α) ⇒ Eq [α] where
  [] == []           = True
  [] == (y:ys)      = False
  (x:xs) == []      = False
  (x:xs) == (y:ys) = (x == y) ∧ (xs == ys)
```

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List Operations

- ◆ Some of the most commonly used functions and operations on lists.
- ◆ For each function: give the definition, illustrate its use, and state some of its properties.

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Concatenation

- ◆ Two lists, both of the same type, can be concatenated to form one longer list.
- ◆ This function is denoted by the binary operator `++`.

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

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Concatenation

- ◆ The formal definition of ++ is

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

- The definition of ++ is by pattern matching on the left-hand argument.
- The two patterns are disjoint and cover all cases, apart from the undefined list ⊥.
- It follows by case exhaustion that

```
⊥ ++ ys = ⊥
```

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Concatenation

- It is not the case that $xs ++ \perp = \perp$
? [1,2,3] ++ undefined
[1,2,3{Interrupted!}]
- The list [1,2,3] ++ ⊥ is a *partial list*, in full form it is the list 1:2:3:⊥.
 - ◆ The evaluator can compute the first three elements, but thereafter it goes into a nonterminating computation, so we interrupt it.

- ◆ Some properties:

```
(xs ++ ys) ++ zs = xs ++ (ys ++ zs)
```

```
xs ++ [] = [] ++ xs = xs
```

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Reverse

- ◆ This function reverses the order of elements in a finite list.

```
? reverse [1,2,3,4,5]
[5,4,3,2,1]
```

- ◆ The definition is

```
reverse  :: [α] → [α]
reverse [] = []
reverse (x:xs) = reverse xs ++ [x]
```

- ◆ In words, to reverse a list (x:xs) one reverses xs and then adds x to the end.

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Length

- ◆ The length of a list is the number of elements it contains.

- ◆ The definition is

```
length  :: [α] → Int
length [] = 0
length (x:xs) = 1 + length(xs)
```

- ◆ The nature of the list elements is irrelevant when computing the length:

```
? length [undefined,undefined]
2
```

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Length

- ◆ Not every list has a well-defined length.

- The partial lists have an undefined length
 - ◆ ⊥, x:⊥, x:y:⊥
- Only finite lists have well-defined lengths.
 - ◆ The list [⊥,⊥] is a finite list, not a partial list because it is the list ⊥:⊥:[], which ends in [] not ⊥. The computer cannot produce the elements, but it can produce the length of the list.

- ◆ The function length satisfies a distribution property:

```
length(xs ++ ys) = length xs + length ys
```

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Head and Tail

- ◆ The function *head* selects the first element of a nonempty list, and *tail* selects the rest:

```
head  :: [α] → α
head [] = error "empty list"
head (x:xs) = x
tail  :: [α] → [α]
tail [] = error "empty list"
tail (x:xs) = xs
```

- These are constant-time operations, since they deliver their result in one reduction step.

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Init and last

- ◆ The function *last* and *init* select the last element of a nonempty list and what remains after the last element has been removed.

```
? last [1,2,3,4,5]
5
? init [1,2,3,4,5]
[1,2,3,4]
```

Init and last

- ◆ First attempt (definition):

```
last    :: [α] → α
last    = head · reverse

init    :: [α] → α
init    = reverse · tail · reverse
```

- ◆ Problem?

- $\text{init } xs = \perp$ for all partial and infinite lists xs

Init and last

- ◆ Second attempt (definition):

```
last (x:xs) = if null xs then x else last xs

init (x:xs) = if null xs then [] else x:init xs
```

- ◆ With this definition

- $\text{init } xs = xs$ for all partial and infinite lists xs

Init and last

- ◆ Third attempt (definition):

- Since $[x]$ is an abbreviation for $x:[]$
- ```
last [x] = x
last (x:xs) = last xs
init [x] = []
init (x:xs) = x:init xs
```

- ◆ Problem?

- There is a serious danger of confusion because the patterns  $[x]$  and  $(x:xs)$  are not *disjoint*.
  - ◆ The second includes the first as a special case.

## Init and last

- If the order of the equations are reversed:

```
last' (x:xs) = last' xs
last' [x] = x
```

- The definition of  $\text{last}'$  would simply be incorrect.

◆  $\text{last}' xs = \perp$

- It is not a good practice to write definition that depend critically on the order of the equations.

## Init and last

- ◆ Definition

```
last :: [α] → α
last [] = error "empty list"
last [x] = x
last (x:y:ys) = last(y:ys)

init :: [α] → [α]
init [] = error "empty list"
init [x] = []
init (x:y:xs) = x:init(y:xs)
```