



Functional Programming

Week 5 – Expressions, Recursion on Numbers

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Last Lecture

- type variables: `a`, `b`, ... represent any type
- parametric polymorphism
 - **one implementation** that can be used for various types
 - polymorphic datatypes, e.g., `data List a = Empty | Cons a (List a)`
 - polymorphic functions, e.g., `append :: List a -> List a -> List a`
 - type constraints, e.g., `sumList :: Num a => List a -> a`
- predefined types: `[a]`, `Maybe a`, `Either a b`, `(a1, ..., aN)`
- predefined type classes
 - arithmetic except division: `Num a`
 - arithmetic including division: `Fractional a`
 - equality between elements: `Eq a`
 - smaller than and greater than: `Ord a`
 - conversion to `Strings`: `Show a`

This Lecture

- type synonyms
- expressions revisited
- recursion involving numbers

Type Synonyms

Type Synonyms

- Haskell offers a mechanism to create **synonyms of types** via the keyword **type**
`type TConstr a1 ... aN = ty`
 - `TConstr` is a fresh name for a type constructor
 - `a1 ... aN` is a list of type variables
 - `ty` is a type that may contain any of the type variables
 - there is no new (value-)constructor
 - `ty` may not include `TConstr` itself, i.e., no recursion allowed

Type Synonyms – Applications, Strings

- example applications of type synonyms
 - avoid creation of new datatypes: `type Person = (String,Integer)`
 - increase readability of code

```
type Month = Int
type Day   = Int
type Year   = Int
type Date  = (Day, Month, Year)
```

```
createDate :: Day -> Month -> Year -> Date
createDate d m y = (d, m, y)
```

```
-- createDate is logically equivalent to the following function,
-- but the type synonyms help to make the code more readable
```

```
createDate :: Int -> Int -> Int -> (Int, Int, Int)
createDate x y z = (x, y, z)
```

- in Haskell: `type String = [Char]`
 - in particular `"hello"` is identical to `['h', 'e', 'l', 'l', 'o']`
 - all functions on lists can be applied to `Strings` as well, e.g. `(++) :: [a] -> [a] -> [a]`

Type Synonyms versus Datatypes

- type synonyms can always be encoded as separate datatype

- example encoding of persons as name and year of birth

```
type PersonTS = (String, Integer)      -- pair of name and year
data PersonDT = Person (String, Integer) -- just add constructor Person
```

- remark: `PersonTS` and `PersonDT` are different types

- the types `PersonTS` and `(String, Integer)` are identical
- the type `PersonDT` is different from both `(String, Integer)` and `PersonTS`
- `("Bob", 2002)` is of type `PersonTS`, but not of type `PersonDT`
- `Person ("Bob", 2002)` is of type `PersonDT`, but not of type `PersonTS`

- advantages of modeling via type synonyms

- no overhead in writing additional constructor, i.e., here `Person`
- functions on existing types can directly be used, e.g., `fst` to access name vs.

```
name (Person p) = fst p    -- implementation for PersonDT
```

- advantages of modeling via datatypes

- separate type class instances are possible, e.g., for `show`-function
- possibility to hide internal representation

(week 6)

(week 9)

Expressions Revisited

Function Definitions Revisited

- current form of function definitions

```
f :: ty           -- optional type definition
f pat11 ... pat1M = expr1  -- first defining equation
...
f pat1M ... patNM = exprN  -- last defining equation
```

where expressions consist of literals, variables, and function- or constructor applications

- observations
 - case analysis only possible via patterns in left-hand sides of equations
 - case analysis on right-hand sides often desirable
 - work-around via auxiliary functions possible
 - better solution: **extension of expressions**

if-then-else

- most primitive form of case analysis: if-then-else
- functionality: return one of two possible results, depending on a Boolean value

```
ite :: Bool -> a -> a -> a
```

```
ite True  x y = x
```

```
ite False x y = y
```

- example application: lookup a value in a key/value-list

```
lookup :: Eq a => a -> [(a, b)] -> Maybe b
```

```
lookup x ((k, v) : ys) = ite (x == k) (Just v) (lookup x ys)
```

```
lookup _ _ = Nothing
```

- if-then-else is predefined: `if ... then ... else ...`

```
lookup x ((k,v) : ys) = if x == k then Just v else lookup x ys
```

- there is no if-then (without the else) in Haskell:
what should be the result if the Boolean is false?
- remark: also `lookup` is predefined in Haskell;
Prelude content (functions, (type-)constructors, type classes, ...) is typeset in `green`

Case Analysis via Pattern Matching

- observation: often case analysis is required on computed values
- implementation possible via auxiliary functions
- example: evaluation of expressions with meaningful error messages

```
data Expr a = Var String | ... -- Numbers, Addition, ...
eval :: Num a => [(String, a)] -> Expr a -> a
eval ass ... = ... -- all the other cases
eval ass (Var x) = aux (lookup x ass) x -- case analysis on lookup x ass
aux (Just i) _ = i
aux _ x = error ("assignment does not include variable " ++ x)
```

- disadvantages
 - local values need to be passed as arguments to auxiliary function (here: `x`)
 - **pollution of name space** by auxiliary functions
(`aux`, `aux1`, `aux2`, `auxX`, `helper`, `fHelper`, ...)
- note: if-then-else is not sufficient for above example

Case Expressions

- **case expressions** support arbitrary pattern matching directly in right-hand sides

```
case expr of
  pat1 -> expr1
  ...
  patN -> exprN
```

- match **expr** against **pat1** to **patN** top to bottom
 - if **patI** is first match, then case-expression is evaluated to **exprI**
- example from previous slide without auxiliary function

```
eval ass (Var x) = case lookup x ass of
  Just i -> i
  _ -> error ("assignment does not include variable " ++ x)
```

The Layout Rule

- problem: define groups (of patterns, of function definitions, ...)
- script content is group, start nested group by **where**, **let**, **do**, or **of**
- items that start in same column are grouped together
- by increasing indentation, single item may span multiple lines
- groups end when indentation decreases
- **ignore layout**: enclose groups in '{' and '}' and separate items by ';' ;'

Examples

with layout:

```
and b1 b2 = case b1 of
  True  -> case b2 of
    True  -> True
    False -> False
  False -> False
```

without layout:

```
and b1 b2 = case b1 of
{ True  -> case b2 of
{ True  -> True; False -> False };
  False -> False }
```

White-Space in Haskell

- because of layout rule, white-space in Haskell matters (in contrast to many other programming languages)
- avoid tabulators in Haskell scripts (tab-width of editor versus Haskell-compiler)

Example

```
and1 b1 b2 = case b1 of
  True  -> case b2 of
    True -> True
    False -> False
```

```
ghci> and1 True False
False
```

```
ghci> and2 True False
*** error: non-exhaustive patterns
```

```
and2 b1 b2 = case b1 of
  True  -> case b2 of
    True -> True
    False -> False
```

The `let` Construct

- `let`-expressions are used for **local** definitions

- syntax

`let`

`pat` = `expr` -- definition by pattern matching

`fname pat1 ... patN` = `expr` -- function definition

`in expr` -- result

- each `let`-expression may contain several definitions (order irrelevant)
- definitions result in new variable-bindings and functions
 - may be used in every expression `expr` above
 - are **not visible outside** `let`-expression

Number of Real Roots via `let` Construct

```
-- Prelude type and function for comparing two numbers
data Ordering = EQ | LT | GT
compare :: Ord a => a -> a -> Ordering

-- task: determine number of real roots of  $ax^2 + bx + c$ 
numRoots a b c = let
    disc = b2 - 4 * a * c    -- local variable
    analyse EQ = 1           -- local function
    analyse LT = 0
    analyse GT = 2
in analyse (compare disc 0)
```


The `where` Construct

- `where` is similar to `let`, used for **local** definitions
- syntax

```
f pat1 .. patM = expr      -- defining equation (or case)
  where pat                = expr  -- pattern matching
        fname pat1 .. patN = expr  -- function definitions
```

- each `where` may consist of several definitions (order irrelevant)
- local definitions introduce new variables and functions
 - may be used in every expression `expr` above
 - are **not visible outside** defining equation / case-expression
- remark: in contrast to `let`, when using `where` the defining equation of `f` is given first

```
numRoots a b c = analyse (compare disc 0) where
  disc = b^2 - 4 * a * c  -- local variable
  analyse EQ = 1         -- local function
  analyse LT = 0
  analyse GT = 2
```

Guarded Equations

- defining equations within a function definition can be **guarded**
- syntax:

```
fname pat1 ... patM  
  | cond1 = expr1  
  | cond2 = expr2  
  | ...
```

where ... -- optional where-block

where each **condI** is a Boolean expression

- whenever **condI** is first condition that evaluates to **True**, then result is **exprI**
- next defining equation of **fname** considered, if no condition is satisfied

```
numRoots a b c
```

```
  | disc > 0    = 2  
  | disc == 0  = 1  
  | otherwise  = 0
```

-- otherwise = True

```
where disc = b2 - 4 * a * c -- disc is shared among cases
```

Example: Roots

- task: compute the sum of the roots of a quadratic polynomial
- solution with potential runtime errors

```
roots :: Double -> Double -> Double -> (Double, Double)
```

```
roots a b c
```

```
  | a == 0 = error "not quadratic"
```

```
  | d < 0  = error "no real roots"
```

```
  | otherwise = ((- b - r) / e, (- b + r) / e)
```

```
  where d = b * b - 4 * a * c
```

```
        e = 2 * a
```

```
        r = sqrt d
```

```
sumRoots :: Double -> Double -> Double -> Double
```

```
sumRoots a b c = let
```

```
  (x, y) = roots a b c -- pattern match in let
```

```
  in x + y
```

- note: non-variable patterns in `let` are usually only used if they cannot fail; otherwise, use `case` instead of `let`

Example: Roots (Continued)

- task: compute the sum of the roots of a quadratic polynomial
- solution with explicit failure via `Maybe`-type

```
roots :: Double -> Double -> Double -> Maybe (Double, Double)
```

```
roots a b c
```

```
  | a == 0 = Nothing
```

```
  | d < 0 = Nothing
```

```
  | otherwise = Just ((- b - r) / e, (- b + r) / e)
```

```
where d = b * b - 4 * a * c
```

```
      e = 2 * a
```

```
      r = sqrt d
```

```
sumRoots :: Double -> Double -> Double -> Maybe Double
```

```
sumRoots a b c =
```

```
  case roots a b c of
```

```
    Just (x, y) -> Just (x + y)
```

```
    n -> Nothing
```

```
-- case for explicit error handling
```

```
-- nested pattern matching
```

```
-- can't be replaced by n -> n! (types)
```

Recursion on Numbers

Recursion on Numbers

- recursive function

`f pat1 ... patN = ... (f expr1 ... exprN) ...`

where input arguments should somehow be larger than arguments in recursive call:

`(pat1, ..., patN) > (expr1, ..., exprN) -- for some relation >`

- decrease often happens in one specific argument (the i -th argument always gets smaller)
- so far the decrease in size was always w.r.t. **tree size**
 - length of list gets smaller
 - arithmetic expressions (`Expr`) are decomposed, i.e., number of constructors is decreased
- if argument is a number (tree size is always 1), then still recursion is possible;
example: the **value** of number might decrease
- frequent cases
 - some number i is decremented until it becomes 0 `(while $i \neq 0 \dots i := i - 1$)`
 - some number i is incremented until it reaches some bound n `(while $i < n \dots i := i + 1$)`

Example: Factorial Function

- mathematical definition: $n! = n \cdot (n - 1) \cdot \dots \cdot 2 \cdot 1$, $0! = 1$

- implementation D: count downwards

```
factorial :: Integer -> Integer
```

```
factorial 0 = 1
```

```
factorial n = n * factorial (n - 1)
```

- in every recursive call the value of `n` is decreased
 - `factorial n` does not terminate if `n` is negative (hit Ctrl-C in ghci to stop computation)
- implementation U: count upwards, use accumulator (here: `r` stores accumulated (r)esult)

```
factorial :: Integer -> Integer
```

```
factorial n = fact 1 1 where
```

```
  fact r i
```

```
    | i <= n = fact (i * r) (i + 1)
```

```
    | otherwise = r
```

- in every recursive call the value of `n - i` is decreased
 - implementation U is equivalent to imperative program (with local variables `r` and `i`)

Example: Combined Recursion

- recursion on trees and numbers can be combined
- example: compute the n -th element of a list

```
nth :: [a] -> Int -> a
nth (x : _) 0 = x           -- indexing starts from 0
nth (_ : xs) n = nth xs (n - 1) -- decrease of number and list-length
nth _ _ = error "no nth-element"
```

- example: take the first n -elements of a list

```
take :: Int -> [a] -> [a]
take _ [] = []
take n (x:xs)
  | n <= 0 = []
  | otherwise = x : take (n - 1) xs -- decrease of number and list-length
```

- remarks
 - both `take` and n -th element (`!!`) are predefined
 - `drop` is predefined function that removes the first n -elements of a list
 - equality: `take n xs ++ drop n xs == xs`

Example: Creating Ranges of Values

- task: given lower bound l and upper bound u , compute list of numbers $[l, l + 1, \dots, u]$
- algorithm: increment l until $l > u$ and always add l to front of list

```
range l u
```

```
| l <= u = l : range (l + 1) u
```

```
| otherwise = []
```

- remark: (a generalized version of) `range l u` is predefined and written `[1 .. u]`
- example: concise definition of factorial function
 - `factorial n = product [1 .. n]`
where `product :: Num a => [a] -> a` computes the product of a list of numbers

Summary

- type synonyms via `type`
- expressions with local definitions and case analysis
- recursion on numbers