



Functional Programming

Week 5 – Expressions, Recursion on Numbers

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This Lecture

- type synonyms
- expressions revisited
- recursion involving numbers

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

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Type Synonyms

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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

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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

possibility to hide internal representation

• separate type class instances are possible, e.g., for show-function (week 6) (week 9) RT et al. (DCS @ UIBK)

```
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]
```

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• 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]

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Expressions Revisited

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Function Definitions Revisited

current form of function definitions

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

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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, auX, helper, fHelper, ...)
- note: if-then-else is not sufficient for above example

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 \rightarrow a \rightarrow a \rightarrow a ite True x y = x ite False x y = y
```

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

```
lookup :: Eq a \Rightarrow a \Rightarrow [(a, b)] \Rightarrow 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

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```
Case Expressions
```

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• 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)
```

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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:
                               without lavout:
                                and b1 b2 = case b1 of
and b1 b2 = case b1 of
 True -> case b2 of
                                 { True -> case b2 of
   True -> True
                                 { True -> True; False -> False };
                                    False -> False }
    False -> False
  False -> False
```

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The let Construct

- let-expressions are used for local definitions
- syntax

```
let
                     = expr -- definition by pattern matching
 fname pat1 ... patN = expr -- function definition
                             -- result
in expr
```

- 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

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

```
and 1 b1 b2 = case b1 of
                                            and 2b1b2 = caseb1 of
     True -> case b2 of
                                              True \rightarrow case b2 of
       True -> True
                                                True -> True
       False -> False
                                              False -> False
 ghci> and1 True False
 False
 ghci> and2 True False
 *** error: non-exhaustive patterns
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```

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Number of Real Roots via 1et Construct

```
-- Prelude type and function for comparing two numbers
data Ordering = EQ | LT | GT
compare :: Ord a \Rightarrow a \Rightarrow a \Rightarrow 0rdering
-- task: determine number of real roots of ax^2 + bx + c
numRoots a b c = let
    disc = b^2 - 4 * a * c -- local variable
                               -- local function
    analyse EQ = 1
    analyse LT = 0
    analyse GT = 2
  in analyse (compare disc 0)
```

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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
                    -- local function
   analyse EQ = 1
   analyse LT = 0
   analyse GT = 2
```

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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
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

Guarded Equations

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

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```
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
 \mid disc == 0 = 1
                    -- otherwise = True
 | otherwise = 0
 where disc = b^2 - 4 * a * c -- disc is shared among cases
```

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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 =
 Just (x, y) \rightarrow Just (x + y) \rightarrow nested pattern matching
   n -> Nothing
                          -- can't be replaced by n -> n! (types)
```

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Recursion on Numbers

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Example: Factorial Function

- mathematical definition: $n! = n \cdot (n-1) \cdot \ldots \cdot 2 \cdot 1, \ 0! = 1$
- 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 \le n = fact (i * r) (i + 1)
    I 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)

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)
```

(while $i < n \dots i := i + 1$) • some number i is incremented until it reaches some bound n

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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 \leq 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
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```

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Example: Creating Ranges of Values

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

- remark: (a generalized version of) range 1 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

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