

# Advanced Functional Programming, 1DL450

Lecture 8, 2012-11-26

Cons T Åhs

# Types revisited

- ▶ Haskell is *statically typed*
  - ▶ Type information is derived and checked at *compile time*
  - ▶ Programs have to be type correct at compile time
  - ▶ Better information up front, less checking at run time
- ▶ Erlang and Lisp are *dynamically typed*
  - ▶ Type information is checked at *run time*
  - ▶ Very little is done at compile time, even for obvious type errors
- ▶ Static or dynamic typing affects programming style very much
  - ▶ static forces discipline by refusing to compile incorrectly typed programs - this is good
  - ▶ dynamic requires discipline if you do not want to end up with very large union types - this is bad
  - ▶ “productivity” might be quite different
    - ▶ Why/when should you choose one or the other?
    - ▶ Why do we have both, really?

# Overloading

- ▶ For a strictly typed language each function (operator) will have a well defined type
  - ▶ good for type inference and understanding
  - ▶ impractical for “standard” functions, such as equality
- ▶ Many languages introduce overloading to make it more practical
  - ▶ drawback is loss of precision during static analysis
  - ▶ auto conversion between types may take behind the scenes
- ▶ Examples
  - ▶ numbers
    - ▶ Int, Integer, Float
  - ▶ arithmetic
    - ▶ add, subtract, ..
  - ▶ equality
    - ▶ what does it mean for two objects to be equal?
  - ▶ ordering
  - ▶ printing

# To type or not to type

```
fac :: Integer -> Integer
fac 0 = 1
fac n = n * fac (n - 1)
```

```
*Main> :type fac
fac :: Integer -> Integer
```

```
*Main> :type length
length :: [a] -> Int
*Main> fac (length [1,2,3])
```

```
<interactive>:281:6:
```

```
Couldn't match expected type `Integer' with actual type `Int'
In the return type of a call of `length'
In the first argument of `fac', namely `(length [1, 2, 3])'
In the expression: fac (length [1, 2, 3])
```

- ▶ If we give a type Haskell will use that type and only complain if the definition is not of the same type
- ▶ We can ask for the type of an expression using `:type` (interactively)
- ▶ Types mismatch and Haskell complains

# To type or not to type

```
-- Don't specify type  
fac 0 = 1  
fac n = n * fac (n - 1)
```

```
*Main> :type fac
```

```
fac :: (Eq a, Num a) => a -> a
```

```
*Main> fac (length [1,2,3])
```

```
6
```

*What's this?*

*OK!*

- ▶ Not giving a type makes Haskell more happy
- ▶ The type, however, might be surprising
- ▶ Enter type classes

# Type Classes

- ▶ Type classes can be seen as similar to interfaces in Java
  - ▶ declare name, type dependence and functions to be implemented
  - ▶ other types can then be made to be instances of the type class
  - ▶ types are now conditionalised on belonging to type classes

```
-- Don't specify type
fac 0 = 1
fac n = n * fac (n - 1)
```

```
*Main> :type (-)
(-) :: Num a => a -> a -> a
```

```
*Main> :type fac
fac :: (Eq a, Num a) => a -> a
```

*Note: this version of fac allows floats, which is questionable..*

*equality defined for a*

*a is a number*

*conditional/implication*

# Type Class Eq

- ▶ Determining equality means defining when two instances are equal
- ▶ Equality, i.e., being an instance of Eq, can be defined automatically if want it.
  - ▶ You will then get the simplest possible equality, i.e., isomorphic structures and members.

```
data Set a = EmptySet | SetAdd a (Set a) | Union (Set a) (Set a)
```

```
*Main> EmptySet == EmptySet
```

```
<interactive>:332:10:
```

```
No instance for (Eq (Set a0))
```

```
arising from a use of `=='
```

```
Possible fix: add an instance declaration for (Eq (Set a0))
```

```
In the expression: EmptySet == EmptySet
```

```
In an equation for `it': it = EmptySet == EmptySet
```

```
data Set a = EmptySet | SetAdd a (Set a) | Union (Set a) (Set a)
           deriving Eq
```

```
*Main> EmptySet == EmptySet
```

```
True
```

# Type Class Eq

- ▶ Determining equality means defining when two instances are equal
  - ▶ define equality for the type
  - ▶ make it be part of type class Eq by extending/overloading == to handle the new type
  - ▶ Read as “..if a is an equality type then two sets of type a are equal when..”
  - ▶ Reading an recursive instance of Eq is a good exercise in operator precedence..

```
data Set a = EmptySet | SetAdd a (Set a) | Union (Set a) (Set a)

instance Eq a => Eq (Set a) where
  EmptySet == EmptySet = True
  (SetAdd x EmptySet) == (SetAdd y EmptySet) = x == y
  (SetAdd x EmptySet) == (Union (SetAdd y EmptySet) EmptySet)
    = x == y
-- more clauses needed..
```



# Defining Type Classes

```
class Complexity a where  
  complexity :: a -> Integer
```

```
instance Complexity Integer where  
  complexity x = x
```

```
instance Complexity Int where  
  complexity x = toInteger x
```

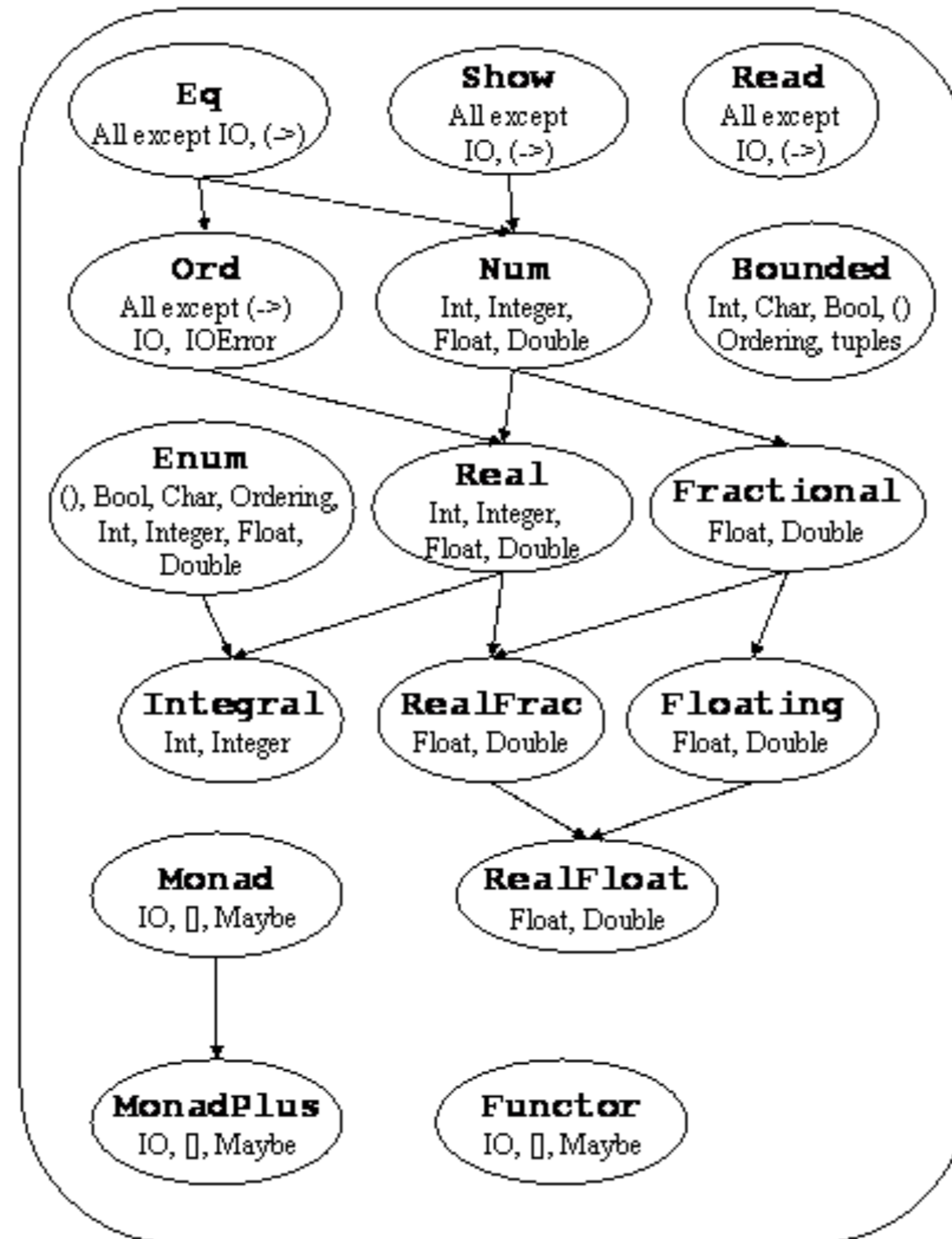
```
instance Complexity a => Complexity [a] where  
  complexity l = (toInteger (length l))  
                + (foldl (\w e -> complexity e + w) 0 l)
```

- ▶ Type class contains one required function
- ▶ Define instances
  - ▶ Instances can be recursive

# Predefined Type Classes

- ▶ Eq - equality
- ▶ Show - printing instances
  - ▶ solves problem of printing value of computation
- ▶ Read - reading instances
- ▶ Enum - enumerate (only possible for certain types)
- ▶ Ord - extension of Eq for total ordering
- ▶ .. and some more ..
- ▶ Together they define a type class hierarchy

# Type class hierarchy



# Automagic Deriving

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

```
nextday :: Day -> Day
nextday day = toEnum (fromEnum day + 1)
```

```
weekday day = elem day [Monday .. Friday]
```

```
*Main> Monday < Wednesday
```

```
True
```

```
*Main> (toEnum 2) :: Day
```

```
Wednesday
```

```
*Main> nextday Tuesday
```

```
Wednesday
```

```
*Main> nextday Friday == Sunday
```

```
False
```

```
*Main> (read "Saturday") :: Day
```

```
Saturday
```

```
*Main> nextday (read "Saturday") :: Day
```

```
Sunday
```

```
*Main> minBound :: Day
```

```
Monday
```

# Extending Show

```
data Sexpr a = Leaf a | Cons (Sexpr a) (Sexpr a)
```

```
showSexpr :: (Show a) => Sexpr a -> String
```

```
showSexpr (Leaf x) = show x
```

```
showSexpr (Cons car cdr) =
```

```
  "(" ++ showSexpr car ++ " . " ++ showSexpr cdr ++ ")"
```

```
instance Show a => Show (Sexpr a) where
```

```
  show s = showSexpr s
```

```
*Main> (Cons (Cons (Leaf 3) (Leaf 2)) (Leaf 4))
```

```
((3 . 2) . 4)
```

- ▶ Extending Read allows you to define your input syntax as well

# The Show Class

```
type ShowS    = String -> String

class Show a  where
  showsPrec :: Int -> a -> ShowS
  show      :: a -> String
  showList  :: [a] -> ShowS

  showsPrec _ x s    = show x ++ s
  show x             = showsPrec 0 x ""
  -- ... default decl for showList given in Prelude
```

- ▶ `showsPrec` is for converting to strings using precedence
- ▶ `ShowS` is used to produce accumulating implementations of `show`, making it more efficient

# Revisiting show for Sexprs

```
data Sexpr a = Leaf a | Cons (Sexpr a) (Sexpr a)
```

```
showsSexpr :: (Show a) => Sexpr a -> ShowS
```

```
showsSexpr (Leaf x) = shows x
```

```
showsSexpr (Cons car cdr) =
```

```
  ('(' :>) . showsSexpr car . (" . "++) . showsSexpr cdr . (')' :>)
```

```
instance Show a => Show (Sexpr a) where
```

```
  show s = showsSexpr s ""
```

```
*Main> (Cons (Cons (Leaf 3) (Leaf 2)) (Leaf 4))
```

```
((3 . 2) . 4)
```

- ▶ Return a function with an accumulator instead
- ▶ Linear complexity instead of quadratic
- ▶ Note compact representation with use of function composition

# Class Enum

```
class Enum a where
  succ, pred      :: a -> a
  toEnum         :: Int -> a
  fromEnum       :: a -> Int
  enumFrom       :: a -> [a]           -- [n..]
  enumFromThen   :: a -> a -> [a]     -- [n,n'..]
  enumFromTo     :: a -> a -> [a]     -- [n..m]
  enumFromThenTo :: a -> a -> a -> [a] -- [n,n'..m]
```

- ▶ Introduce convenient functions and notations for enumerations



# Class Eq

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

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

- ▶ Only one needs to be defined
- ▶ Standard definitions exist for both exists
- ▶ One can be defined in terms of the other

# Ordering

```
data Ordering = LT | EQ | GT
              deriving (Eq, Ord, Bounded, Enum, Read, Show)
```

```
class (Eq a) => Ord a where
  compare      :: a -> a -> Ordering
  (<), (<=), (>=), (>) :: a -> a -> Bool
  max, min     :: a -> a -> a
```

```
compare x y | x == y    = EQ
             | x <= y   = LT
             | otherwise = GT
```

```
x <= y = compare x y /= GT
```

```
x < y = compare x y == LT
```

```
x >= y = compare x y /= LT
```

```
x > y = compare x y == GT
```

```
max x y | x <= y = y
```

```
         | otherwise = x
```

```
min x y | x <= y = x
```

```
         | otherwise = y
```

# Class Num

```
class (Eq a, Show a) => Num a where
  (+), (-), (*)    :: a -> a -> a
  negate          :: a -> a
  abs, signum     :: a -> a
  fromInteger     :: Integer -> a
```

```
class (Num a, Ord a) => Real a where
  toRational :: a -> Rational
```

```
class (Real a, Enum a) => Integral a where
  quot, rem, div, mod :: a -> a -> a
  quotRem, divMod    :: a -> a -> (a, a)
  toInteger          :: a -> Integer
```

# Class Num

```
class (Num a) => Fractional a where
  (/)      :: a -> a -> a
  recip    :: a -> a
  fromRational :: Rational -> a
```

```
class (Fractional a) => Floating a where
  pi      :: a
  exp, log, sqrt      :: a -> a
  (**), logBase      :: a -> a -> a
  sin, cos, tan      :: a -> a
  asin, acos, atan    :: a -> a
  sinh, cosh, tanh    :: a -> a
  asinh, acosh, atanh :: a -> a
```