FUNCTIONAL PROGRAMMING

Introduction

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Introduction

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- Algebraic datatypes
- Pattern matching
- Polymorphism
- Type classes
- Global and principal type inference
- Lazy evaluation
- Pure functional language
- Extensible effect system (monads)
- Many crazy typesystem extensions
 - Higher Kinded Types
 - Rank-N-Polymorphism
 - Linear Types
 - Type Families
 - DataKinds
 - Dependent Types

Algebraic Datatypes (Python Motivation)

```
@dataclass
class MouseClick:
    x: int
    y: int
@dataclass
class KeyPress:
    key: Key
```

type Event = MouseClick | KeyPress

my_event: Event = MouseClick(23, 42)

```
> Pattern Matching (Python Motivation)
    def event_to_str(e: Event) -> str:
        match e:
            case MouseClick(-42, y):
                return "Burn the witch!"
            case MouseClick(x, y, btn):
                return "Clicked at " + str((x, y))
            case KeyPress(key):
                return str(key)
```

Algebraic Datatypes

data Event = MouseClick Int Int | KeyPress Key

myEvent :: Event
myEvent = MouseClick 23 42

Pattern Matching

eventToStr :: Event -> String eventToStr e = case e of MouseClick -42 y -> "Burn the witch!" MouseClick x y -> "Clicked at " ++ show (x, y) KeyPress key -> "Pressed key " ++ show key

 Polymorphism
 Identity in Python: def id[A](x: A) -> A: return x

> Identity in Haskell: id :: a -> a id x = x

 Polymorphism
 Identity in Python: def id[A](x: A) -> A: return x

> Identity in Haskell: id :: forall a. (a -> a) id x = x

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```
Type Classes
    class Show a where
      show :: a -> String
    instance Show Event where
      show e = eventToStr e
    instance Show Int where ... -- Defined in stdlib
    showBoth :: (Show a, Show b) => a -> b -> String
    showBoth x y = show x + + ", " + + show y
    showBoth Left 42 -- evaluates to "Left, 42"
Recall 42 :: Num a => a
  and 42.0 :: Fractional a => a
```

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- Global and principal type inference
 We can write showBoth x y = show x ++ ", " ++ show y
 and Haskell figures out that showBoth :: (Show a, Show b) => a -> b -> String
 - However, by convention type annotations are written for top-level functions, which helps as documentation and improves error messages

```
Lazy Evaluation
    Consider the following function
              f :: Bool -> Int -> Int
              f b x = if b then x else 0
       which is called as f False (5 + 2)
    Normally this happens:
                f False (5 + 2)
              → f False 7
              \rightarrow if False then 7 else 0
              → 0
    With lazy evaluation this happens:
```

```
f False (5 + 2)

\rightarrow if False then (5 + 2) else 0

\rightarrow 0
```

- Pure Functional Language
 - Functions have no sideeffects
 - Same input implies same output
 - This allows for nice equational reasoning, e.g.

f x + f x === let y = f x in y + y

 A rare property among production-grade languages: Haskell, Nix, Agda, Coq, Lean

wait... wut?

- If there are no side effects . . .
- ... how is it possible to write any kind of reasonable program?

- Extensible Effect System (Monads)
 - Idea
 - functions don't actually perform side effects, but instead return a description of the side effects as data
 - this data is propagated to the main function which again returns it
 - \blacktriangleright the runtime system reads the descriptions and actually executes them
 - Example: Reading a file into a string

readFile :: FilePath -> IO String

- Calling readFile "foo.txt" does not read the file, but instead returns an IO action, which only when executed reads the file and returns a string
- Multiple actions can be combined and are finally returned from main, which causes them to be exectued by the runtime system.
- The main expression has type

```
main :: IO ()
```

Extensible Effect System (Monads)

What does this mean for purity? In particular, for the equation f x + f x === let y = f x in y + yLet's consider the following function to print to the terminal: putStrLn :: String -> IO () A "hello world" looks as follows: main :: IO () main = putStrLn "Hello!" What if we want to call putStrLn multiple times? The >> operator allows to combine IO actions (>>) :: IO a -> IO b -> IO b This allows us to write the following two programs: main = putStrLn "Hello!" >> putStrLn "Hello!" main = let x = putStrLn "Hello!" in x >> x Hannes Saffrich Introduction 2024-10-18

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Why Learn Haskell?

- Some language constructs are just generally great for programming
 - Algebraic Datatypes, Pattern Matching, Type Classes, Higher-Order Functions
 - All available in Rust
- Some design concepts can also be enlightening in other languages
 - Learning the trade-offs of programming in a pure functional style
 - Learning the design patterns to make this work properly
 - It's a different way of thinking about programming
- If you want to, you can actually program in Haskell and find a job
 - Small amount of companies, but also small amount of Haskell programmers
- Many people, who went through the journey of learning Haskell, feel like it made them a better programmer in general
- Gateway drug to learning a theorem prover / dependently-typed language like Agda, Coq or Lean, which have to be pure to not allow for proving wrong theorems

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Introduction

- Booleans (Bool)
- Integers (Int and Integer)
- Floats (Float and Double)
- Tuples (e.g. (Int, Bool, Float))
- Lists (e.g. [Int])
- Characters and Strings (Char and String)
- Functions (e.g. Int -> Int)

Booleans

Values

True :: Bool False :: Bool

Logical connectives

not True	Negation		
True && False	Conjunction		
True False	Disjunction		

► If-Then-Else expression

if True then 0 else 1

- Short circuiting (like everything because of lazy evaluation)
- Defined by the algebraic datatype

data Bool = True | False

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Integers

Values

- 5 :: Int
- 5 :: Integer
- • •
- Int is a fixed size 30bit integer with overflow
- Integer is a arbitrary sized bigint implementation
- Typical Operations

1 + 1	1 - 1 1 * 1	
5/2	returns 2.5	
5 'div'	2 returns 2	
5 'mod'	2 returns 1	
2 ^ 4	returns 16	
1 > 1	1 >= 1 1 == 1	1 != 1

Floats

Values

5.0 :: Float 5.0 :: Double

• • •

- Float is a 32bit floating point number
- Double is a 64bit floating point number
- Basically same operations as on integers

Tuples

Values

() :: ()
(1, 2) :: (Int, Float)
(1, 2, True) :: (Int, Int, Bool)
...

- Float is a 32bit floating point number
- Double is a 64bit floating point number
- Basically same operations as on integers

Lists

Values

[]					::	[Int]
[]					::	[Bool]
2	:	[]			::	[Int]
3	:	(2	:	[])	::	[Int]
3:	2	:[]			::	[Int]
[3	3,	2]			::	[Int]

- Careful: Linked lists, not arrays!
- Standard library functions

```
[1, 2] ++ [3, 4] -- returns [1, 2, 3, 4] (list concat)
[1, 2] !! 0 -- returns 1 (list indexing)
length [1, 2] -- returns 2 (list length)
... -- many more in module Data.List
```

Lists

Values

[]					::	[Int]
[]					::	[Bool]
2	:	[]			::	[Int]
3	:	(2	:	[])	::	[Int]
3:	2	:[]			::	[Int]
[3	3,	2]			::	[Int]

Behave as if they were defined by the Algebraic Datatype data List a = Nil | Cons a (List a)

Just instead of

- List a we write [a]
- Nil we write []
- Cons 3 Nil we write 3 : [], etc.

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Built-in Types Characters and Strings

Values

'a'	::	Char
"ab"	::	String

- Characters are Unicode
- String is a type alias for [Char]
- "ab" is literally the same as ['a', 'b']
- Sounds insane, but sometimes reasonable, because of lazy evaluation
- the text package on Hackage provides the usual UTF-8 String datatype

Functions

Values

 $x \rightarrow x + 1$:: Int \rightarrow Int

- The backslash \setminus looks sort of like a lambda λ
- Top-level function = global constant variable with function value, e.g. increment :: Int -> Int increment = \x -> x + 1
- Syntactic sugar to make it look nicer:
- Top-level function = global constant variable with function value, e.g. increment :: Int -> Int increment x = x + 1

- Haskell supports only single-parameter functions
- Functions taking multiple arguments can be encoded in two ways:
 - 1. As curried functions, e.g.

```
add :: Int -> (Int -> Int)
add = \x -> (\y -> (x + y))
```

```
test :: Int
test = (add 2) 3
```

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```
add :: Int -> Int -> Int
add x y = x + y
test :: Int
test = add 2 3
2. As uncurried functions, e.g.
add :: (Int, Int) -> Int
add = \xy -> fst xy + snd xy
test :: Int
test = add (2, 3)
```

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add x y = x + y
test :: Int
test = add 2 3
2. As uncurried functions, e.g.
add :: (Int, Int) -> Int
add = \(x, y) -> x + y
test :: Int
```

```
test = add (2, 3)
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 - 1. As curried functions, e.g.

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add :: Int -> Int -> Int
add x y = x + y
test :: Int
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add x y = x + y
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add :: (Int, Int) -> Int
add(x, y) = x + y
test :: Int
test = add(2, 3)
```

Functions

- In Haskell people usually use curried functions
- Those are nicer for partial applications:

add :: Int \rightarrow Int \rightarrow Int add x y = x + y

```
inc :: Int -> Int
inc = add 1
```

Compared to the uncurried version:

```
add :: (Int, Int) -> Int
add (x, y) = x + y
```

```
inc :: Int \rightarrow Int
inc x = add (1, x)
```

Functions

 Custom operators can be defined by using non-alphanumeric symbols, e.g.

$$x *+ y = x * y + y$$

test :: Int test = 5 *+ 3 *+ 4 -- same as 5 *+ (3 *+ 4)

Functions

 Regular functions can also be used infix by enclosing them with backticks, e.g.

```
max :: Int -> Int -> Int
max x y = if x > y then x else y
test :: Int
test = max 5 2
test = 5 'max' 2
```

This is how the div and mod functions are commonly used

Operators can be partially applied by using operator sections

inc :: Int -> Int inc = (1+) -- (1+) is equivalent to $x \rightarrow 1 + x$

Let Expression

- let x = e1 in e2
- Binds variable x to have the value of expression e1 in expression e2
- Allows to bind multiple variables at once and supports optional type signatures

```
test :: Int
test =
    let
    x :: Int
    x = 3
    y :: Int
    y = 3
    in x + y
```

Pattern Matching

```
The case expression can be used for pattern matching, e.g.
oneZero :: (Int, Int) -> Bool
oneZero p = case p of
(0, y) -> True
(x, 0) -> True
_ -> False
```

Patterns can also be used everywhere where variables are defined

In functions:

oneZero :: (Int, Int) -> Bool oneZero (0, y) = True oneZero (x, 0) = True oneZero _ = False

In let-expressions:

```
oneZero :: (Int, Int) -> Bool
oneZero p = let (x, y) = p in
x == 0 || y == 0
```

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Introduction

Pattern Matching

- Pattern guards allow integrating boolean expressions into pattern clauses
- Absolute value without pattern guards:

abs :: Int \rightarrow Int abs x = if x > 0 then x else -x

Absolute value wit pattern guards:

```
abs :: Int -> Int
abs x | x >= 0 = x
| x < 0 = -x
```

Pattern Matching

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Absolute value wit pattern guards:

abs :: Int -> Int abs x | x >= 0 = x abs x | x < 0 = -x

Pattern Matching

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Pattern Matching

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- Absolute value without pattern guards:

abs :: Int \rightarrow Int abs x = if x > 0 then x else -x

Absolute value wit pattern guards:

abs :: Int \rightarrow Int abs x | x >= 0 = x abs x | otherwise = -x