



# Haskell: From Basic to Advanced

Part 2 – Type Classes, Laziness, IO, Modules



# Qualified types

- In the types schemes we have seen, the type variables were *universally quantified*, e.g.

```
++ :: [a] -> [a] -> [a]
```

```
map :: (a -> b) -> [a] -> [b]
```

- In other words, the code of `++` or `map` could assume *nothing* about the corresponding input
- What is the (principal) type of `qsort`?
  - we want it to work on *any list whose elements are comparable*
  - but nothing else
- The solution: **qualified types**

# The type of `qsort`

```
-- File: qsort2.hs
qsort [] = []
qsort (p:xs) =
  qsort lt ++ [p] ++ qsort ge
  where lt = [x | x <- xs, x < p]
        ge = [x | x <- xs, x >= p]
```

```
Prelude> :l qsort2.hs
[1 of 1] Compiling Main          ( qsort2.hs, interpreted )
Ok, modules loaded: Main.
*Main> :t qsort
qsort :: Ord a => [a] -> [a]
```

- The type variable `a` is *qualified* with the **type class** `Ord`
- `qsort` works only with any list whose elements are instances of the `Ord` type class

**Note:** A type variable can be qualified with more than one type class

# Type classes and instances

```
class Ord a where
  (>)    :: a -> a -> Bool
  (<=)   :: a -> a -> Bool
```

defines a  
*type class*  
named `Ord`

```
data Student = Student Name Score
type Name = String
type Score = Integer
```

**Note:** we can use the same name for a new data declaration and a constructor

```
better :: Student -> Student -> Bool
better (Student n1 s1) (Student n2 s2) = s1 > s2
```

```
instance Ord Student where
```

```
  x > y = better x y
  x <= y = not (better x y)
```

makes  
Student  
an *instance*  
of `Ord`

**Note:** The actual `Ord` class in the standard `Prelude` defines more functions than these two



# Type classes

- Haskell's type class mechanism has some parallels to Java's interface classes
- **Ad-hoc polymorphism** (also called **overloading**)
  - for example, the `>` and `<=` operators are overloaded
  - the `instance` declarations control how the operators are implemented for a given type

## Some standard type classes

**Ord**      used for totally ordered data types

**Show**    allow data types to be printed as strings

**Eq**        used for data types supporting equality

**Num**      functionality common to all kinds of numbers



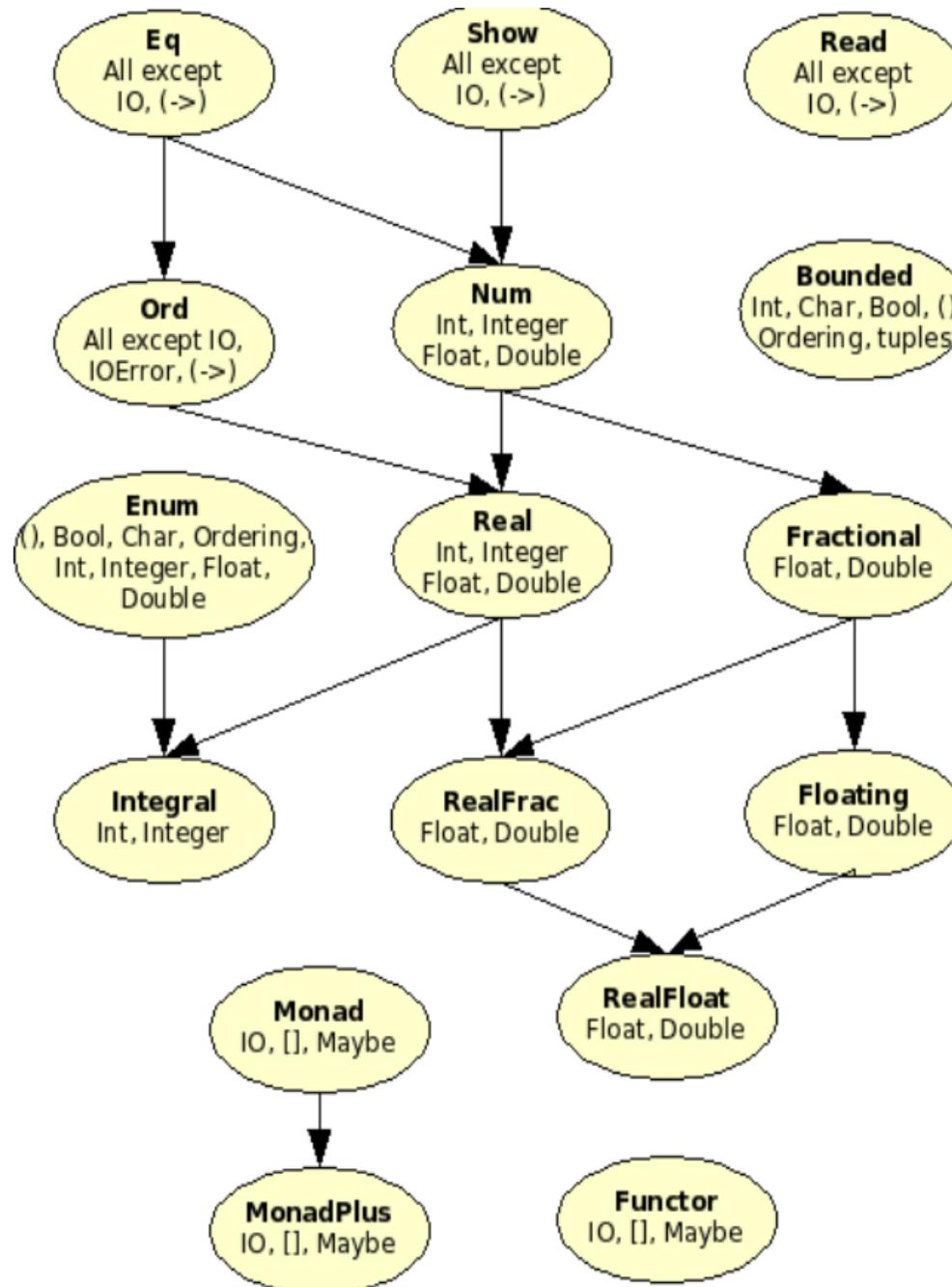
# Example: equality on Booleans

```
data Bool = True | False
```

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

```
instance Eq Bool where  
    True == True = True  
    False == False = True  
    _ == _ = False  
    x /= y = not (x == y)
```

# Predefined classes and instances





# Referential transparency

- *Purely functional* means that *evaluation has no side-effects*
  - A function maps an input to an output value and does nothing else (i.e., is a “real mathematical function”)
- **Referential transparency:**
  - “*equals can be substituted with equals*”

We can disregard evaluation order and duplication of evaluation

`f x + f x` is always same as `let y = f x in y + y`

Easier for the programmer (and compiler!) to reason about code



# Lazy evaluation

```
-- a non-terminating function
loop x = loop x
```

```
Prelude> :l loop
[1 of 1] Compiling Main          ( loop.hs, interpreted )
Ok, modules loaded: Main.
*Main> length [fac 42,loop 42,fib 42]
3
```

- We get a “correct” answer immediately
- Haskell is lazy: computes a value only when needed
  - none of the elements in the list are computed in this example
  - functions with undefined arguments might still return answers
- Lazy evaluation can be
  - efficient since it evaluates a value at most once
  - surprising since evaluation order is not “the expected”



# Lazy and infinite lists

- Since we do not evaluate a value until it is asked for, there is no harm in defining and manipulating infinite lists

```
from n = n : from (n + 1)

squares = map (\x -> x * x) (from 0)

even_squares = filter even squares

odd_squares = [x | x <- squares, odd x]
```

```
Prelude> :l squares
[1 of 1] Compiling Main                ( squares.hs, interpreted )
Ok, modules loaded: Main.
*Main> take 13 even_squares
[0,4,16,36,64,100,144,196,256,324,400,484,576]
*Main> take 13 odd_squares
[1,9,25,49,81,121,169,225,289,361,441,529,625]
```

- Avoid certain operations such as printing or asking for the length of these lists...



# Programming with infinite lists

- The (infinite) list of all Fibonacci numbers

```
fibs = 0 : 1 : sumlists fibs (tail fibs)
  where sumlists (x:xs) (y:ys) = (x + y) : sumlists xs ys
```

```
Prelude> :l fibs
[1 of 1] Compiling Main                ( fibs.hs, interpreted )
Ok, modules loaded: Main.
*Main> take 15 fibs
[0,1,1,2,3,5,8,13,21,34,55,89,144,233,377]
*Main> take 15 (filter odd fibs)
[1,1,3,5,13,21,55,89,233,377,987,1597,4181,6765,17711]
*Main> take 13 (filter even fibs)
[0,2,8,34,144,610,2584,10946,46368,196418,832040,3524578,14930352]
```

- Two more ways of defining the list of Fibonacci numbers using variants of `map` and `zip`

```
fibs2 = 0 : 1 : map2 (+) fibs2 (tail fibs2)
  where map2 f xs ys = [f x y | (x,y) <- zip xs ys]
  -- the version above using a library function
fibs3 = 0 : 1 : zipWith (+) fibs3 (tail fibs3)
```



# Lazy and infinite lists

`[n..m]` shorthand for a list of integers from `n` to `m`  
(inclusive)

`[n..]` shorthand for a list of integers from `n` upwards

We can easily define the list of all prime numbers

```
primes = sieve [2..]
  where sieve (p:ns) = p : sieve [n | n <- ns, n `mod` p /= 0]
```

```
Prelude> :l primes
[1 of 1] Compiling Main          ( primes.hs, interpreted )
Ok, modules loaded: Main.
*Main> take 13 primes
[2,3,5,7,11,13,17,19,23,29,31,37,41]
```



# Infinite streams

- A *producer* of an infinite stream of integers:

```
fib  = 0 : fib1
fib1 = 1 : fib2
fib2 = add fib fib1
      where add (x:xs) (y:ys) = (x+y) : add xs ys
```

- A *consumer* of an infinite stream of integers:

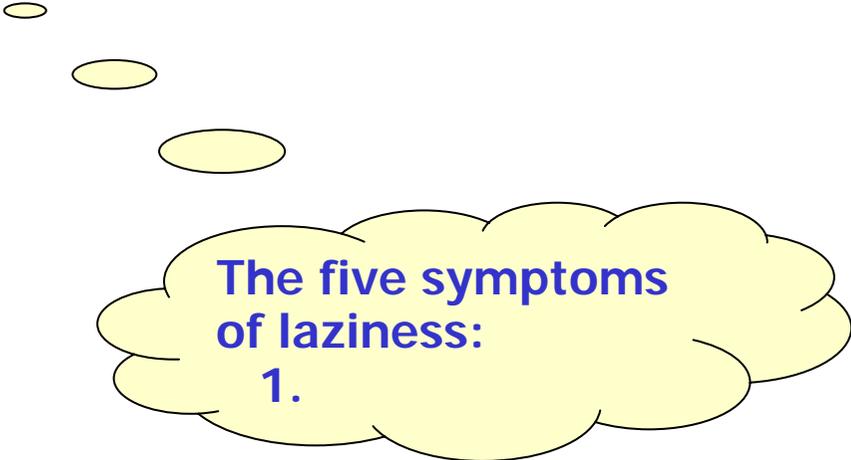
```
consumer stream n =
  if n == 1 then show head
  else show head ++ ", " ++ consumer tail (n-1)
      where head:tail = stream
```

`consumer fib 10`  $\Rightarrow$  ...  $\Rightarrow$  "0, 1, 1, 2, 3, 5, 8, 13, 21, 34"



# Drawbacks of lazy evaluation

- More difficult to reason about performance
  - especially about space consumption
- Runtime overhead



The five symptoms  
of laziness:

1.

# Side-effects in a pure language

- We really need side-effects in practice!
  - I/O and communication with the outside world (user)
  - exceptions
  - mutable state
  - keep persistent state (on disk)
  - ...



- How can such *imperative* features be incorporated in a *purely functional language*?



# Doing I/O and handling state

- When doing I/O there are some desired properties
  - It should be done. Once.
  - I/O statements should be handled in sequence
- Enter the world of **Monads**\* which
  - encapsulate the state, controlling accesses to it
  - effectively model *computation* (not only sequential)
  - clearly separate pure functional parts from the impure

**Do it in a  
Monad**  
*... and remain pure!*

\* A notion and terminology adopted from **category theory**



# The IO type class

- **Action:** a special kind of value
  - e.g. reading from a keyboard or writing to a file
  - must be ordered in a well-defined manner for program execution to be meaningful
- **Command:** expression that evaluates to an action
- **IO T:** a type of command that yields a value of type **T**
  - `getLine :: IO String`
  - `putStr :: String -> IO ()`
- Sequencing IO operations (the *bind* operator):

```
(>>=) :: IO a -> (a -> IO b) -> IO b
```

current state

second action

new state



# Example: command sequencing

- First read a string from input, then write a string to output

```
getLine >>= \s -> putStr ("Simon says: " ++ s)
```

- An alternative, more convenient syntax:

```
do s <- getLine  
   putStr ("Simon says: " ++ s)
```

- This looks very “imperative”, but all side-effects are controlled via the `IO` type class!
  - `IO` is merely an instance of the more general type class `Monad`

```
(>>=) :: Monad m => m a -> (a -> m b) -> m b
```

- Another application of `Monad` is simulating mutable state



# Example: copy a file

- We will employ the following functions:

```
Prelude> :info writeFile
writeFile :: FilePath -> String -> IO ()      -- Defined in `System.IO'
Prelude> :i FilePath
type FilePath = String                        -- Defined in `GHC.IO'
Prelude> :i readFile
readFile :: FilePath -> IO String            -- Defined in `System.IO'
```

- The call `readFile "my_file"` is not a `String`, and no `String` value can be extracted from it
- But it can be used as part of a more complex sequence of instructions to compute a `String`

```
copyFile fromF toF =
  do contents <- readFile fromF
     writeFile toF contents
```



# Monads

- As we saw, Haskell introduces a **do** notation for working with monads, i.e. introduces sequences of computation with an implicit state

```
do expr1; expr2; ...
```

- An “assignment” “expands” to

```
do x <- action1; action2
```

```
action1 >>= \x -> action2
```

- A monad also requires the **return** operation for returning a value (or introducing it into the monad)
- There is also a sequencing operation that does not take care of the value returned from the previous operation

Can be defined in terms of bind:  $x \gg y = x \gg= (\_ \rightarrow y)$



# Modules

- Modularization features provide
  - *encapsulation*
  - *reuse*
  - *abstraction*(separation of name spaces and information hiding)
- A module *requires* and *provides* functionality

```
module Calculator (Expr,eval,gui) where
import Math
import Graphics
...
```

- It is possible to export everything by omitting the export list



# Modules: selective export

- We need not export all constructors of a type
- Good for writing ADTs: supports hiding representation

```
module AbsList (AbsList, empty, isempty,  
               cons, append, first, rest) where  
  
data AbsList a = Empty  
              | Cons a (AbsList a)  
              | App (AbsList a) (AbsList a)  
  
empty = Empty  
cons x l = Cons x l  
append l1 l2 = App l1 l2  
...
```

- Here we export only the type and abstract operations



# Modules: import

- We can use `import` to use entries from another module

```
module MyMod (...) where
import Racket (cons, null, append)
import qualified Erlang (send, receive, spawn)

foo pid msg queue = Erlang.send pid (cons msg queue)
```

- Unqualified import allows to use exported entries as is
  - + shorter symbols
  - risk of name collision
  - not clear which symbols are internal or external
- Qualified import means we need to include module name
  - longer symbols
  - + no risk of name collision
  - + easy distinction of external symbols



# A better quick sort program

- Recall the `qsort` function definition

```
qsort [] = []
qsort (p:xs) = qsort lt ++ [p] ++ qsort ge
  where lt = [x | x <- xs, x < p]
        ge = [x | x <- xs, x >= p]
```

- We can avoid the two traversals of the list by using an appropriate function from the `List` library

```
import Data.List (partition)

qsort [] = []
qsort (p:xs) = qsort lt ++ [p] ++ qsort ge
  where (lt,ge) = partition (<p) xs
```



# Exercise: sort a file (with its solution)

- Write a module defining the following function:

```
sortFile :: FilePath -> FilePath -> IO ()
```

- `sortFile file1 file2` reads the lines of `file1`, sorts them, and writes the result to `file2`
- The following functions may come handy

```
lines    :: String -> [String]  
unlines  :: [String] -> String
```

```
module FileSorter (sortFile) where  
import Data.List (sort)           -- or use our qsort  
  
sortFile f1 f2 =  
  do str <- readFile f1  
     writeFile f2 ((unlines . sort . lines) str)
```



# Summary so far

- **Higher-order functions, polymorphic functions** and **parameterized types** are useful for building abstractions
- **Type classes** and **modules** are useful mechanisms for structuring programs
- **Lazy evaluation** allows programming with infinite data structures
- Haskell is a **purely** functional language that can avoid redundant and repeated computations
- Using **monads**, we can control side-effects in a purely functional language