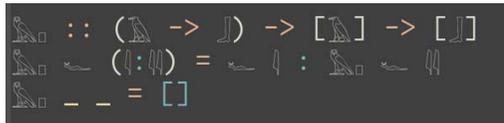


Part 1 – Basic Language



By combining Haskell + Unicode, you can write perfectly functional programs in Hieroglyphics

- Functional
- Pure
- Lazy
- Strong static typing
- Type polymorphism
- Type classes
- Monads
- Haskell 98 / Haskell 2010
- GHC
 - Glasgow Haskell Compiler
- GADTs
 - Generalized Algebraic Data Types
- STM
- Hackage

History



- Named after the logician Haskell B. Curry
- Designed by a committee aiming to
 - consolidate (lazy) FP languages into a common one
 - develop a language basis for FP language research
- Well crafted and designed pure FP language
 - concise and expressive
 - strong theoretical basis (λ -calculus)
 - sophisticated type system
 - evaluation on demand, at most once (laziness)

Hello, World!

```
-- File: hello.hs
module Main where

main :: IO ()
main = putStrLn "Hello, World!"
```

Not the most representative Haskell program...

- '--' starts a one-line comment
- '::' denotes a type declaration
- '=' defines a function clause
- All but the last line are optional
- Source file names end in ".hs"

Quick sort over lists

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

- `[]` for the empty list
- `(h:t)` notation for a list with head `h` and tail `t`
- Very compact and easy to understand code
- Small letters for variables
- Simpler list comprehensions
- No parentheses or punctuations needed

```
%% Erlang version
qsort([]) -> [];
qsort([P|Xs]) ->
  qsort([X || X <- Xs, X < P]) ++
  [P] ++ % pivot element
  qsort([X || X <- Xs, X >= P]).
```

Another quick sort program

```
-- 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]
```

- Equivalent to the previous definition (shown below)
- Which version to prefer is a matter of taste

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

Running the Haskell interpreter

```
$ ghci
GHCi, version 7.4.1: http://www.haskell.org/ghc/ :? for help
Loading package ... <SNIP>
Loading package base ... linking ... done.
Prelude> 6*7
42
Prelude> :quit
Leaving GHCi.
$
```

- The Glasgow Haskell interpreter is called ‘GHCi’
- The interactive shell lets you write any Haskell expressions and run them
- The “Prelude>” means that this library is available
- To exit the interpreter, type “:quit” (or “:q” or “^D”)

Loading and running a program

```
$ ghci
GHCi, version 7.4.1: http://www.haskell.org/ghc/ :? for help
Loading package ... <SNIP>
Loading package base ... linking ... done.
Prelude> :load qsort.hs
[1 of 1] Compiling Main                ( qsort.hs, interpreted )
Ok, modules loaded: Main.
*Main> qsort [5,2,1,4,2,5,3]
[1,2,2,3,4,5,5]
```

- Use “:load” (or “:l”) to load a file in the interpreter

Functions and values

```
len [] = 0
len (x:xs) = len xs + 1
```

```
nums = [17,42,54]
n = len nums
```

As we will soon see,
functions are values!

- Functions are written as equations (no `fun` keywords)
- Their definitions can consist of several clauses
- Function application is written without parentheses
- We can define values and apply functions to them
- Local definitions using `let` expressions or `where` clauses

```
nums = [17,42,54]
n = let len [] = 0
      len (x:xs) = len xs + 1
      in len nums
```

```
nums = [17,42,54]
n = len nums
  where len [] = 0
        len (x:xs) = len xs + 1
```

Layout matters!

- Note the spaces: all clauses of a function need to be aligned

```
nums = [17,42,54]
n = let len [] = 0
      len (x:xs) = len xs + 1
      in len nums
```

- On the other hand, the following is not legal

```
nums = [17,42,54]
n = let len [] = 0
      len (x:xs) = len xs + 1
      in len nums
```

- One can also write

```
nums = [17,42,54]
n = let { len [] = 0; len (x:xs) = len xs + 1 }
      in len nums
```

Pattern matching

```
len [] = 0
len (x:xs) = len xs + 1
```

- Function clauses are chosen by pattern matching
- Pattern matching also available using `case` expressions

```
len ls = case ls of
  [] -> 0
  x:xs -> len xs + 1
```

- Strong static typing ensures the above is equivalent to

```
len ls = case ls of
  x:xs -> len xs + 1
  _ -> 0
```

Pattern matching (cont.)

```
-- take first N elements from a list
take 0 ls = []
take n [] = []
take n (x:xs) = x : take (n-1) xs
```

- Pattern matching can involve ‘multiple’ arguments
- But no repeated variables in patterns (as in ML)
- Pattern matching can also be expressed with `case`

```
-- equivalent definition using case
take n ls =
  case (n, ls) of
    (0, _) -> []
    (_, []) -> []
    (n, x:xs) -> x : take (n-1) ls
```

Note: All branches
of a case have to
return the same type

Pattern matching and guards

- Pattern matching can also involve guards

```
-- a simple factorial function
fac 0 = 1
fac n | n > 0 = n * fac (n-1)
```

This clause will match only for positive numbers

```
Prelude> :l factorial.hs
[1 of 1] Compiling Main          ( factorial.hs, interpreted )
Ok, modules loaded: Main.
*Main> fac 3
6
*Main> fac 42
1405006117752879898543142606244511569936384000000000
*Main> fac (-42)
*** Exception: factorial.hs:(2,1)-(3,31):
    Non-exhaustive patterns in function fac
```

No “match non exhaustive” warnings; runtime errors instead

More on guards

- More than one clauses can contain guards

```
-- returns the absolute value of x
abs x | x >= 0 = x
abs x | x < 0 = -x
```

- We can abbreviate repeated left hand sides

```
-- returns the absolute value of x
abs x | x >= 0 = x
      | x < 0 = -x
```

- Haskell also has **if-then-else**

```
-- returns the absolute value of x
abs x = if x >= 0 then x else -x
```

Type annotations

```
len :: [a] -> Integer
len [] = 0
len (x:xs) = len xs + 1

nums :: [Integer]
nums = [17,42,54]

n :: Integer
n = len nums
```

- Every function and value has an associated type
- This type can be (optionally) supplied by the programmer in the form of an annotation
- Note the variable in the type of `len` (a polymorphic type)

Type notation

- `Integer`, `String`, `Float`, `Double`, `Char`, ... Base types
- `[X]` A list of values of type `X`
- `X -> Y` A function from `X` values to `Y` values
- `(X,Y,Z)` A 3-tuple with an `X`, a `Y` and a `Z` value
- ...

```
pair_sum :: (Integer,Integer) -> Integer
pair_sum (a,b) = a + b
```

```
triple :: (Integer,(String,Integer),[Char])
triple = (17,("foo",42),['b','a','r'])
```

Type inference

- A type annotation is a contract between the author and the user of a function definition
- In Haskell, writing type annotations is *optional*
 - the compiler will infer types and detect inconsistencies
 - in fact, it will infer the best possible type (**principal type**)
- Still, providing type annotations is recommended
 - to enhance readability of programs
 - especially when the intended meaning of functions is not “immediately obvious”
- But, as we will see, often Haskell infers better types than those we would normally write by hand

User defined types

We can create new types by enumerating constants and constructors (they need to start with uppercase)

```
data Color = Green | Yellow | Red

next Green = Yellow
next Yellow = Red
next Red = Green
```

```
data Shape = Rectangle Double Double
           | Circle Double

area (Rectangle x y) = x * y
area (Circle r) = 3.14159265 * r * r
```

A type used in another type (such as **Double** above) has to be wrapped in a constructor – why?

Constructors vs. pattern matching

- Constructors are a special kind of functions that construct values
 - e.g. `Rectangle 3.0 2.0` constructs a `Shape` value
- Constructors have types!
 - e.g. `Rectangle :: Double -> Double -> Shape`
- Pattern matching can be used to “deconstruct” values
 - e.g. below we define a function that can extract the first (**x**) component of a `Rectangle` value

```
getX (Rectangle x y) = x
```

Recursive data types

- Type definitions can be recursive

```
data Expr = Const Double
         | Add Expr Expr
         | Neg Expr
         | Mult Expr Expr

eval :: Expr -> Double
eval (Const c) = c
eval (Add e1 e2) = eval e1 + eval e2
eval (Neg e) = - eval e
eval (Mult e1 e2) = eval e1 * eval e2
```

```
eval (Mult (Const 6.0) (Add (Const 3.0) (Const 4.0)))
  => ... => 42.0
```

Parameterized types

```
data Expr = Const Double
         | Add Expr Expr
         | Neg Expr
         | Mult Expr Expr
```

- Type definitions can also be parameterized

```
data Expr a = Const a
           | Add (Expr a) (Expr a)
           | Neg (Expr a)
           | Mult (Expr a) (Expr a)

type DoubleExpr = Expr Double
```

- Now `Expr` is a parameterized type:
 - It takes a type as “argument” and “returns” a type

Parameterized types (cont.)

- Another parameterized type definition

```
data Tree a = Empty | Node a (Tree a) (Tree a)

Empty :: Tree a
Node  :: a -> Tree a -> Tree a -> Tree a

depth :: Tree a -> Integer
depth Empty = 0
depth (Node x l r) = 1 + max (depth l) (depth r)
```

- Types can be parameterized on more type variables

```
type Map a b = [(a,b)]
```

```
data Pair a = Duo a a
```

constraints `Duo` to
have two elements
of the same type

Type synonyms

- Synonyms for types are just abbreviations
- Defined for convenience

```
type String = [Char]

type Name = String
data OptAddress = None | Addr String
type Person = (Name, OptAddress)
```

A note on names: The naming style we have been using is mandatory

- Type names and constructor names begin with an uppercase letter
- Value names (and type variables) begin with a lowercase letter

Higher order functions

- Functions are first class values
- They can take functions as arguments and return functions as results

```
map :: (a -> b) -> [a] -> [b]
map f [] = []
map f (x:xs) = f x : map f xs

nums = [17,42,54]
inc x = x + 1
more_nums = map inc nums
```

Type variables

- Function application associates to the left

$f\ x\ y = (f\ x)\ y$

Currying

```
add_t :: (Integer,Integer) -> Integer
add_t (x,y) = x + y

add_c :: Integer -> Integer -> Integer
add_c x y = x + y

add42 = add_c 42
```



- `add_t` takes a *pair* of integers as argument and returns their sum
- `add_c` takes one integer as argument and returns a function that takes another integer as argument and returns their sum (*curried* version)

Anonymous functions

- A **λ -abstraction** is an anonymous function
- Math syntax:
 $\lambda x. exp$ where x is a variable name and exp is an expression that may use x
- Haskell syntax:

$\lambda x \rightarrow exp$

- Two examples:

`inc42 x = x + 42` \approx `inc42 = \x -> x + 42`

`add x y = x + y` \approx `add = \x -> \y -> x + y`
 \approx `add = \x y -> x + y`

Infix operators

- Infix operators (e.g. `+` or `++`) are just “binary” functions

`x + y` \approx `(+) x y`

- “Binary” functions can be written with an infix notation

`add x y` \approx `x `add` y`

- Apart from the built-in operators, we can define our own
 - Infix operators are built from non-alphanumeric characters

```
[ ] @@ ys = ys
(x:xs) @@ ys = x : (ys @@ xs)
```

- Operator precedence and associativity can be specified with “fixity declarations”

Strictly, there are no binary functions in Haskell as all functions have only one argument...

Infix operators & partial application

Even infix operators can be applied partially

```
Prelude> map (42 +) [1,2,3]
[43,44,45]
Prelude> map (+ 42) [1,2,3]
[43,44,45]
Prelude> map ("the " ++) ["dog","cat","pig"]
["the dog","the cat","the pig"]
Prelude> map (++ " food") ["dog","cat","pig"]
["dog food","cat food","pig food"]
```

Notice that for a non-commutative operator order matters!
(as shown for `++` above or as shown for `/` below)

```
Prelude> map (/ 2) [1,2,3]
[0.5,1.0,1.5]
Prelude> map (2 /) [1,2,3]
[2.0,1.0,0.6666666666666666]
```

Function composition

- Function composition is easy (and built-in)

```
-- same as the built-in operator . (dot)
compose f g = \x -> f (g x)
```

```
*Main> compose fac length "foo"
6
*Main> (fac . length) "foobar"
720
```

- Composition is not commutative
- What is the type of function composition?

```
*Main> :type compose
compose :: (b -> c) -> (a -> b) -> a -> c
```

List comprehensions

- Lists are pervasive in Haskell (as in all FP languages...)
- List comprehensions are a convenient notation for list manipulation
- Recall

```
lt = [y | y <- xs, y < x]
```

which means the same as

```
lt = concatMap f xs
  where
    f y | y < x = [y]
        | otherwise = []
```

(concatMap is defined in the Prelude)

Haskell standard Prelude

- A library containing commonly used definitions
- Examples:

```
type String = [Char]
```

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

```
True  && x = x
False && _ = False
```

```
[] ++ ys = ys
(x:xs) ++ ys = x : (xs ++ ys)
```

- The core of Haskell is quite small
- In theory, everything can be reduced to λ -calculus

List comprehensions (cont.)

- List comprehensions can have multiple generators

```
-- finds all Pythagorean triples up to n
pythag :: Int -> [(Int,Int,Int)]
pythag n =
  [(x,y,z) | x <- [1..n], y <- [x..n],
            z <- [y..n], x^2 + y^2 == z^2]
```

```
*Main> pythag 13
[(3,4,5),(5,12,13),(6,8,10)]
*Main> pythag 17
[(3,4,5),(5,12,13),(6,8,10),(8,15,17),(9,12,15)]
```

- Note that any list-producing expression can be used as a generator, not just explicit lists
- Similarly, any Boolean expression can be used as a filter

The lists zip operation

- The function `zip` takes two lists as input (curried) and returns a list of corresponding pairs

```
zip (x:xs) (y:ys) = (x,y) : zip xs ys
zip [] ys = []
zip xs [] = []
```

- Two examples:

```
Prelude> zip [17,42,54] ['a','b','c']
[(17,'a'),(42,'b'),(54,'c')]
Prelude> zip [1,2,3,4] ['A'..'Z']
[(1,'A'),(2,'B'),(3,'C'),(4,'D')]
```

Abstractions using HO functions

- These two functions perform a similar traversal of the list, but apply different operations to elements

```
sum [] = 0
sum (x:xs) = x + sum xs

prod [] = 1
prod (x:xs) = x * prod xs
```

very common
technique in
FP languages

- We can abstract the traversal part and separate it from the operations

```
foldr op init [] = init
foldr op init (x:xs) = x `op` foldr op init xs

sum = foldr (+) 0
prod = foldr (*) 1
```

$\text{foldr op init } [x_1, x_2, \dots, x_{42}] \Rightarrow$
 $(x_1 \text{ `op` } (x_2 \text{ `op` } \dots (x_{42} \text{ `op` } \text{init}) \dots$

More `foldr` fun

Using `foldr` we can obtain very concise definitions of many common list functions

```
and = foldr (&&) True
concat = foldr (++) []
```

```
xs ++ ys = foldr (:) ys xs
```

```
reverse = foldr (\y ys -> ys ++ [y]) []
```

```
maximum (x:xs) = foldr max x xs
```

Syntactic redundancy

Expression style	vs.	Declaration style
each function is defined as one expression	\Leftrightarrow	each function is defined as a series of equations
<code>let</code>	\Leftrightarrow	<code>where</code>
λ	\Leftrightarrow	arguments on the left hand side of =
<code>case</code>	\Leftrightarrow	function level pattern matching
<code>if</code>	\Leftrightarrow	guards

Terminology review

Higher-order function: a function that takes another function as argument and/or returns one as a result

Polymorphic function: a function that works with arguments of many possible types

Type scheme: a type that involves type variables

- the type of a polymorphic function is a type scheme

Parameterized type: a type that takes another type as “argument” and “returns” a type

- their constructors are often polymorphic functions

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

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

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

```
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

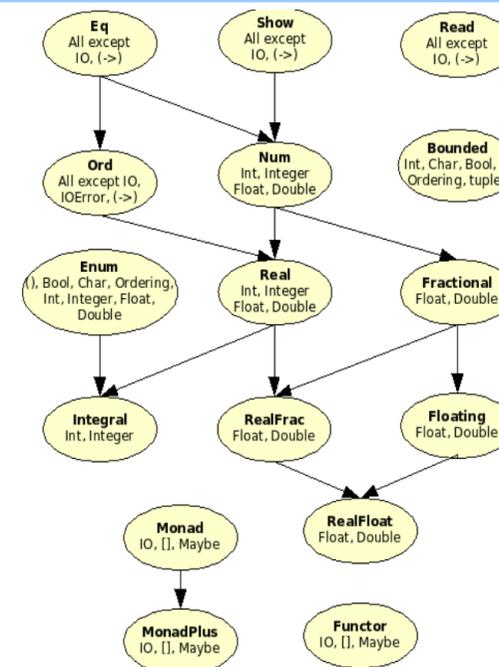
Example: equality on Booleans

```
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]
```

Drawbacks of lazy evaluation

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



The five symptoms
of laziness:
1.

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"

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!
— with Haskell, the 100% pure, lazy
functional programming language

* 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 >> y = x >>= (\_ -> 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

## Haskell: From Basic to Advanced

### Part 3 – A Deeper Look into Laziness

BILL GATES SAYS :

I WILL ALWAYS CHOOSE A LAZY PERSON  
TO DO A DIFFICULT JOB ...  
BECAUSE, HE WILL FIND AN EASY  
WAY TO DO IT.



## Laziness again

- Haskell is a *lazy* language
  - A particular function argument is only evaluated when it is *needed*, and
  - if it is needed then it is evaluated *just once*

“apply” needs the function

```
(\x -> x + x) (3 * 7)
=>
 +
 / \
(3 * 7)
=> 21 + 21
=> 42
```

(+) needs its arguments

A computation model called *graph reduction*

## When is a value “needed”?

```
strange :: Bool -> Integer
strange True = 42
strange False = 42
```

```
Prelude> strange undefined
*** Exception: Prelude.undefined
```

USE undefined or error to test if an argument is evaluated

An argument is evaluated when a pattern match occurs

But also primitive functions evaluate their arguments

## Lazy programming style

- Clear separation between
  - Where the computation of a value is defined
  - Where the computation of a value happens

We naturally get modularity!

## At most once?

```
fib n = head (drop n fibs)
```

```
foo :: Integer -> Integer
foo n = (fib n)^2 + fib n + 42
```

```
Prelude> foo (6 * 7)
71778070269089954
```

6 \* 7 is evaluated once but fib 42 is evaluated twice

```
bar :: Integer -> Integer
bar n = foo 42 + n
```

```
Prelude> bar 17 + bar 54
143556140538179979
```

foo 42 is evaluated twice

**Quiz:** How to avoid such recomputation?

## At most once!

```
foo :: Integer -> Integer
foo x = t^2 + t + 42
 where t = fib x
```

```
bar :: Integer -> Integer
bar x = foo42 + x
```

```
foo42 :: Integer
foo42 = foo 42
```

The compiler might also perform these optimizations with

```
ghc -O
```

```
ghc -ffull-laziness
```

## Lazy iteration

```
iterate :: (a -> a) -> a -> [a]
iterate f x = x : iterate f (f x)
```

```
Prelude> take 13 (iterate (*2) 1)
[1,2,4,8,16,32,64,128,256,512,1024,2048,4096]
```

```
repeat :: a -> [a]
repeat x = x : repeat x
```

```
cycle :: [a] -> [a]
cycle xs = xs ++ cycle xs
```

Define these  
with iterate?

```
repeat :: a -> [a]
repeat x = iterate id x
```

```
cycle :: [a] -> [a]
cycle xs = concat (repeat xs)
```

## Lazy replication and grouping

```
replicate :: Int -> a -> [a]
replicate n x = take n (repeat x)
```

```
Prelude> replicate 13 42
[42,42,42,42,42,42,42,42,42,42,42,42,42]
```

```
group :: Int -> [a] -> [[a]]
group n =
 takeWhile (not . null)
 . map (take n)
 . iterate (drop n)
```

How to  
define this?

. connects stages like  
Unix pipe symbol

```
Prelude> group 3 "abracadabra!"
["abr", "aca", "dab", "ra!"]
```

## Lazy IO

- Even IO is done lazily!

```
headFile f = do
 c <- readFile f
 let c' = unlines . take 5 . lines $ c
 putStrLn c'
```

Does not actually read  
in the whole file!

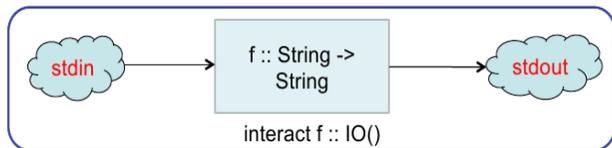
Need to print causes  
just 5 lines to be read

Aside: we can use names with ' at their end (read: "prime")

## Lazy IO

**Common pattern:** take a function from String to String, connect **stdin** to the input and **stdout** to the output

```
interact :: (String -> String) -> IO ()
```



```
import Network.HTTP.Base (urlEncode)
```

```
encodeLines = interact $
 unlines . map urlEncode . lines
```

```
Prelude> encodeLines
hello world
hello%20world
20+22=42
20%2B22%3D42
...
```

## Other IO variants

- **String** is a list of **Char**:
  - each element is allocated individually in a cons cell
  - IO using **String** has quite poor performance
- **Data.ByteString** provides an alternative non-lazy array-like representation **ByteString**
- **Data.ByteString.Lazy** provides a hybrid version which works like a list of max 64KB chunks

## Controlling laziness

- Haskell includes some features to reduce the amount of laziness, allowing us to decide *when* something gets evaluated
- These features can be used for performance tuning, particularly for controlling space usage
- Not recommended to mess with them unless you have to – hard to get right in general!



## Tail recursion

- A function is tail recursive if its last action is a recursive call to itself and that call produces the function's result
- Tail recursion uses no stack space; a tail recursive call can be compiled to an unconditional jump
- Important concept in non-lazy functional programming

- Recall **foldr**

```
foldr op init [x1,x2,...,x42] =>
 (x1 `op` (x2 `op` ... (x42 `op` init) ...
```

```
foldr op init [] = init
```

```
foldr op init (x:xs) = x `op` foldr op init xs
```

- The tail recursive “relative” of **foldr** is **foldl**

```
foldl op init [x1,x2,...,x42] =>
 (...(init `op` x1) `op` x2) ... `op` x42
```

```
foldl op init [] = init
```

```
foldl op init (x:xs) = foldl op (init `op` x) xs
```

## Tail recursion and laziness

- Recall `sum`

```
sum = foldr (+) 0
```

```
*Main> let big = 42424242 in sum [1..big]
*** Exception: stack overflow
*Main> let big = 42424242 in foldr (+) 0 [1..big]
*** Exception: stack overflow
```

- OK, we were expecting these, but how about `foldl`?

```
*Main> let big = 42424242 in foldl (+) 0 [1..big]
*** Exception: stack overflow
```

- What's happening!?
- Lazy evaluation is too lazy!

```
foldl (+) 0 [1..big]
=> foldl (+) (0+1) [2..big]
=> foldl (+) (0+1+2) [3..big]
=> ...
```

Not computed until needed;  
at the 42424242 recursive call!

## Controlling laziness using `seq`

- Haskell includes a primitive function

```
seq :: a -> b -> b
```

- It evaluates its first argument and returns the second

"strict" is used to mean  
the opposite of "lazy"

The `Prelude` also defines a strict application operation

```
($!) :: (a -> b) -> a -> b
f $! x = x `seq` (f x)
```

## Strictness

- A tail recursive lists sum function

```
sum :: [Integer] -> Integer
sum = s 0
 where s acc [] = acc
 s acc (x:xs) = s (acc+x) xs
```

- When compiling with `ghc -O` the compiler looks for arguments which will eventually be needed and will insert ``seq`` calls in appropriate places

```
sum' :: [Integer] -> Integer
sum' = s 0
 where s acc [] = acc
 s acc (x:xs) = acc `seq` s (acc+x) xs
```

force `acc` to be simplified  
on each recursive call

## Strict tail recursion with `foldl'`

```
foldl' :: (a -> b -> a) -> a -> [b] -> a
foldl' op init [] = init
foldl' op init (x:xs) = let a = (init `op` x)
 in a `seq` foldl' op a xs
```

And now

```
*Main> let big = 42424242 in foldl' (+) 0 [1..big]
899908175849403
```

Or even better, we can use the built-in one

```
*Main> import Data.List (foldl')
*Main> let big = 42424242 in foldl' (+) 0 [1..big]
899908175849403
```

## Are we there yet?

- One more example: average of a list of integers

```
average :: [Integer] -> Integer
average xs = sum' xs `div` fromIntegral (length xs)
```

```
*Sum> let big = 42424242 in length [1..big]
42424242
*Sum> let big = 42424242 in sum' [1..big]
899908175849403
*Sum> let big = 42424242 in average [1..big]
21212121
```

needed due to the types of `sum'` and `length`

- Seems to work, doesn't it? Let's see:

```
*Sum> let bigger = 424242420 in length [1..bigger]
424242420
*Sum> let bigger = 424242420 in sum' [1..bigger]
89990815675849410
*Sum> let bigger = 424242420 in average [1..bigger]
... CRASHES THE MACHINE DUE TO THRASHING!
```

WTF?

## Fixing the space leak

- This particular problem can be solved by making `average` tail recursive by computing the list sum and length at the same time

```
average' :: [Integer] -> Integer
average' xs = av 0 0 xs where
 av sm len [] = sm `div` len
 av sm len (x:xs) = sm `seq`
 len `seq`
 av (sm + x) (len + 1) xs
```

call to `fromIntegral` not needed anymore

```
*Sum> let bigger = 424242420 in average' [1..bigger]
212121210
```

fixing a space leak



## Space leaks

- Making `sum` and `length` tail recursive and strict does not solve the problem ☹️
- This problem is often called a **space leak**
  - `sum` forces us to build the whole `[1..bigger]` list
  - laziness (“at most once”) requires us to keep the list in memory since it is going to be used by `length`
  - when we compute either the length or the sum, as we go along, the part of the list that we have traversed so far is reclaimed by the garbage collector

## Gotcha: `seq` is still quite lazy!

- `seq` forces evaluation of its first argument, but *only as far as the outermost constructor!*

```
Prelude> undefined `seq` 42
*** Exception: Prelude.undefined
Prelude> (undefined,17) `seq` 42
42
```

evaluation to weak head-normal form

the pair is already “evaluated”, so a `seq` here would have no effect

```
sumlength = foldl' f (0,0)
 where f (s,l) a = (s+a,l+1)
```

```
sumlength = foldl' f (0,0)
 where f (s,l) a = let (s',l') = (s+a,l+1)
 in s' `seq` l' `seq` (s',l')
```

force the evaluation of components *before* the pair is constructed

## Laziness and IO

```
count :: FilePath -> IO Int
count f = do contents <- readFile f
 let n = read contents
 writeFile f (show (n+1))
 return n
```

for the time being this will do

readFile is not computed until it is needed

```
Prelude> count "some_file"
*** Exception: some_file: openFile: resource busy (file is locked)
```

- We sometimes need to control lazy IO
  - Here the problem is easy to fix (see below)
  - Some other times, we need to work at the level of file handles

```
count :: (Num b, Show b, Read b) => FilePath -> IO b
count f = do contents <- readFile f
 let n = read contents
 n `seq` writeFile f (show (n+1))
 return n
```

## Some lazy remarks

- Laziness
  - Evaluation happens on demand and “at most once”
  - + Can make programs more “modular”
  - + Very powerful tool when used right
  - Different programming style / approach
- We do not have to employ it everywhere!
- Some performance implications are very tricky
  - Evaluation can be controlled by tail recursion and seq
  - Best avoid their use when not really necessary