## EECS 776

### Functional Programming and Domain Specific Languages

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### Basic list functions

Remember lists, and list operations? First, look at the types

We are going to write all of these today.



# Taking things to bits

#### Consider these examples:

```
GHCi> let swap (a,b) = (b,a)
GHCi> swap (1,2)
(2,1)
```

#### What is happening?

- The tuple is being deconstructed, into the variables **a** and **b**.
- A new tuple is being constructed, using a and b, swapped.

```
GHCi> let reverse [a,b,c] = [c,b,a]
GHCi> reverse [1,2,3]
[3,2,1]
GHCi> reverse [1,2]
*** Exception: <interactive>:2:5-29: Non-exhaustive patterns in function reverse
```

How do we generalize this to work over **any** length of list?



### The truth about lists

```
[ . . , . . , . . ] is just syntactical sugar for building finite, fixed sized lists. Instead, we can build list inductively.
```

- An empty list is constructed by using [].
- An non-empty list is constructed by using a value and another list. This operation is called "cons", and written as infix: in Haskell.
   The: operator associates to the right. This means we can write:

```
1:2:3:[]
```

This list is **identical** to the list generated by [1,2,3].

```
add0 :: [Int] -> [Int] add0 xs = 0 : xs -- could not write using [..,..,..] notation
```



# Table of value identifiers and symbols

What	Syntax-rule	Description	Example	
name	start with Upper	Constructor	True or False	
name	start with lower	variable	x or abc	
symbol	start with ':'	infix Constructor	:	
symbol	not starting with ':'	infix variable	+ or ^	
specials		tuples, lists	(,) or [1,2,3]	

infix to nonfix:  $1+2 \Rightarrow (+) 12$ 

nonfix to infix:  $mod x y \Rightarrow x \mod y$ 



# Table of type identifiers and symbols

What	Syntax-rule	Description	Example
name	start with Upper	Fixed Type	Int or Bool
name	start with lower	type variable	a is universally quantified
specials		tuple type, list type	(,) or [Int]



# Pattern matching in Haskell

Both fixed-sized list notation and cons-list notation can be used for pattern matching.

```
head :: [a] -> a -- take the first element of a list
head (x : xs) = x
tail :: [a] -> [a] -- take the rest of a list
tail (x : xs) = xs
```

Both notations can be intermixed.

- Here, the first equation is attempted, then if it fails, the second.
- This "pattern matching" is a form of control flow



### Haskell functions and recursion

Many Haskell functions are recursive.

Canonical example: factorial function.

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

Another way of writing, using if then else.

```
fac :: Int -> Int fac :: Int -> Int fac (n-1)
```



# Common way of acting over a list

Write a function that adds 1 to every element of a list.

```
adder :: [Int] -> [Int]
adder [] = []
adder (x:xs) = x + 1 : adder xs
```



## Lets write the length function

We count the cons cells, recursively.

```
length :: [a] -> Int
length [] = 0
length (x:xs) = 1 + length xs
```

If a value is ignored, you can say so.

```
length :: [a] -> Int
length [] = 0
length (_:xs) = 1 + length xs
```



### fromto function

#### Here is what we want to function to do

```
GHCi> fromto (1,10)
[1,2,3,4,5,6,7,8,9,10]
```

### First attempt, using tuples

```
fromto :: (Int,Int) -> [Int]
fromto (n,m) = if n > m then [] else n : fromto (n+1,m)
```



# fromto function Curryed (a.k.a. Haskell B Curry)

#### Can we make this neater?

```
GHCi> fromto 1 10 [1,2,3,4,5,6,7,8,9,10]
```

#### Second attempt, using currying

```
fromto :: Int -> Int -> [Int]
fromto n m = if n > m then [] else n : fromto (n+1) m
```



## Curry to go

### The principle of currying is simple:

- All you can do is apply a function to an argument;
- and every function takes just one argument.

### But what about zip?

```
zip :: [a] -> [b] -> [(a,b)]
```

### zip really has type

```
zip :: [a] -> ([b] -> [(a,b)])
```

- Key idea: -> groups to the right
- · All functions always have one argument



# Let's write the append function

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

[] ++ ys = ...

(x:xs) ++ ys = ...
```

#### Solution

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

[] ++ ys = ys

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



# Types

	0	Int	[A]	(A,B)	A→B
[]	[()]	[lnt]	[[A]]	[(A,B)]	[A→B]
(,C)	((),C)	(Int,C)	([A],C)	((A,B),C)	(A→B,C)
C →	C → ()	C → Int	C → [A]	C → (A,B)	C → (A→B)
→ C	() → C	Int → C	[A] → C	(A,B) → C	(A→B) → C



## take, with Curry

#### We can create a custom version of take

```
GHCi> :t take
Int -> [a] -> [a]
GHCi> let f = take 5
GHCi> :t f
f :: [a] -> [a]
GHCi> f [10..20]
[10,11,12,13,14]
```

This works, because of Currying.



# Curry

### The principle of currying is simple:

- All you can do is apply a function to an argument;
- and every function accepted just one argument.

### So:

- Pass the first argument;
- get back a new and customized function that accepted the second argument.

### So:

- we pass 5 to take;
- and get back a **new and customized** function that **take**'s 5 elements.



# Filtering

### Consider

```
GHCi> filter odd [1..10]
[1,3,5,7,9]
```

How might we construct a function that filters out even numbers?

```
GHCi> let f = \dots
```

What is the type of this function?



# The truth about filtering

- filter takes two arguments, a function and a list.
- It returns the elements, in order, that match the predicate.

```
filter :: (a -> Bool) -> [a] -> [a]
```

#### OR

```
filter :: (a -> Bool) -> ([a] -> [a])
```

- This use of functions-as-arguments is called higher-order functions.
- This pervasive use of functions is why this class is called functional programming.



### map

map is one of the most important functions in functional programming.

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

- What can we tell from the type?
- What can we use map for?
- Can we nest map?
- Can we write map?

