# **Programming Paradigms**

### **Summer Term 2017**

### 6<sup>th</sup> Lecture

**Prof. Janis Voigtländer University of Duisburg-Essen** • In Haskell there are even abbreviating notations for infinite lists.



• For example:

naturals, evens, odds :: [Integer] naturals  $= [1..]$ evens  $= [2, 4..]$ odds  $= [1, 3..]$ 

• With this we can represent infinite series as lists, e.g.,



### **Actually working with infinite lists**

- Input of an expression that denotes an infinite list expectedly leads to non-terminating output (needs to be stopped "by hand"!)
- However, working with finite parts of infinite lists is possible, e.g.,



- That this is possible is not trivial. It is a benefit of Haskell's on-demand evaluation strategy, which computes the value of a (sub-)expression only if, and when, it is absolutely required ("lazy evaluation").
- The following expression "intuitively" denotes a finite list, but the computation does nevertheless not terminate:

Why ?

 $>$  [ x | x  $\leftarrow$  squares, x  $<$  100 ] [1, 4, 9, 16, 25, 36, 49, 64, 81,

#### **Some more examples: variants for prime number generation**

• Instead of:

```
odds = [1, 3].
factors n = [x \mid x \leftarrow [1..n], n \mod x == 0]primes = 2 : [n \mid n \leftarrow odds, factors n == [1, n]
```
• For example:

```
primes = 2 : [n \mid n \leftarrow [3, 5..], isPrime n ]
isPrime n = and [n `mod` t > 0 | t \leftarrow candidates primes ]
 where candidates (p : ps) | p * p > n = [ ]otherwise = p : candidates ps
```
Or also:

primes  $=$  sieve  $[2..]$ sieve  $(p : xs) = p : sieve [ x | x \leftarrow xs, x \mod p > 0 ]$ 

# **Programming Paradigms**

### **The role of recursion (and kinds of recursion)**

We earlier saw:

sumsquare  $:: Int \rightarrow Int$ sumsquare  $i = if i == 0$  then 0 else  $i * i +$  sumsquare  $(i - 1)$ 

> sumsquare 4 30

But also possible:

```
sumsquare :: Int \rightarrow Intsumsquare n = sum[i * i | i \leftarrow [0..n] ]
```
> sumsquare 4 30

So which form is "better"?

No obvious/general answer. What could be criteria?

Maybe:

- efficiency
- readability
- "provability"

Fact: also sum,  $[0 \dots n]$ ,  $\ldots$  are ultimately defined via recursive functions.

#### **Different kinds of recursion**

Structural recursion:

sum  $::$  [Int]  $\rightarrow$  Int  $sum \lceil \rceil$  = 0  $sum (x : xs) = x + sum xs$ 

Also "structural" in some sense, or at least inductive:

sumsquare  $:: Int \rightarrow Int$ sumsquare  $i = if i == 0$  then 0 else  $i * i +$  sumsquare  $(i - 1)$ 

General/arbitrary recursion:

digsum  $:: Int \rightarrow Int$ digsum n  $|n < 10$  = n otherwise  $= \text{let } (d, m) = n \text{ div} \text{Mod}^2 10 \text{ in } m + \text{ digsum } d$ 

Also: ack, …, Quicksort, …

#### Consider Euclid's algorithm:





- Loops (e.g., while) turn into recursive functions.
- Here even special form: tail recursion.
- How does this play out for verification?

#### **Comparison structural and general recursion**

- General recursion is much more flexible!
	- Algorithmic principles like "divide and conquer" can be employed.
	- Some functions can provably not be implemented with structural recursion.
- Structural recursion:
	- ... gives a very useful "recipe" for defining functions
	- ... guarantees termination (on finite structures)
	- ... enables very direct proofs by induction
	- ... can be "packaged" as a reusable program scheme

# **Programming Paradigms**



• Important concept of Haskell, so far considered only in passing:

Every expression and every function have a type.

Notation for type assignment: double colon

e.g., 
$$
\boxed{1::\text{Int}}
$$

- Foundation: predefined base types for constants
	- diverse numeric types, e.g., Integer, Rational, Float, Double
	- characters: Char
	- Boolean values: Bool
- Additionally: various type constructors (tuples, lists, ...) for more complex types

**Typing, type checking, type inference**

• Every expression has exactly one type, which is determined before runtime:

Haskell is a strongly and statically typed language.

• Function definitions and applications are checked for type consistency:

type checking

- In addition, Haskell offers type inference is, i.e., the types need not necessarily be written down explicitly.
- There is no (implicit or explicit) casting between types.

#### **Particulars on typing of numbers**

- We have already mentioned various number types: Int, Integer, Float (and there are several further ones, for example Rational).
- Number literals can have a different concrete type depending on context (e.g., 3 :: Int, 3 :: Integer, 3 :: Float, 3.0 :: Float, 3.5 :: Float, 3.5 :: Double).
- For general expressions there are overloaded conversion functions, for example:
	- fromIntegral :: Int  $\rightarrow$  Integer, fromIntegral :: Integer  $\rightarrow$  Int, fromIntegral :: Int  $\rightarrow$  Rational, fromIntegral :: Integer  $\rightarrow$  Float, ...
	- truncate :: Float  $\rightarrow$  Int, truncate :: Double  $\rightarrow$  Int, truncate :: Float  $\rightarrow$  Integer, …, round :: …, ceiling :: …, floor :: …
- Conversions are not necessary in, for example,  $3 + 4.5$  or in:  $\begin{bmatrix} 1 & x = 2 \\ x + 3 & y \end{bmatrix}$ ,

$$
\begin{array}{|c|c|}\n f x = 2 * x + 3.5 \\
 g y = f 4 / y\n\end{array}
$$

but for example in:

f :: Int 
$$
\rightarrow
$$
 float  
f x = 2 \* (fromIntegral x) + 3.5

or in:

$$
f x = 2 * x + 3.5
$$
  
g y = f (fromIntegral (length "abcd")) / y

# **Programming Paradigms**

**Algebraic data types**

#### **Declaration of (algebraic) data types**

- An important aspect of typical Haskell programs is the definition of problem specific data types (instead of building everything from lists or so).
- To that end, one primarily uses data type declarations:



- Syntax: constructors in Haskell (both data and type constructors) generally start with a capital letter (exception: certain symbolic forms like in the case of lists).
- Semantics: the newly defined type Color above is an enumeration type that consists of exactly the five given values.

• User defined data types like

data Color = Red | Green | Blue | White | Black

can arbitrarily be used as components in other types, such as for example in [ (Color, Int) ] with values e.g. [ ], [ (Red,  $-5$ ) ] and [ (Red,  $-5$ ), (Blue, 2), (Red, 0) ].

• Computation goes via pattern matching:



#### **User defined structured types**

• It is also possible to declare new types with structure, by using a data constructor with parameters:



• With such a user defined data constructor with parameters, one can then construct structured values of one's own type:

 $Pt(1, 2) :: Point$ 

It is permissible to use the same name for a type constructor and for a data constructor (e.g., twice Pt here), even if the data constructor does not belong to the same type.

• A somewhat more complex example:

 $data$  Date  $=$  Date Int Int Int data Time = Hour Int  $data$  Connection = Train Date Time Time  $\vert$ Flight String Date Time Time

- Possible values for Connection:
	- Train (Date 20 04 2011) (Hour 11) (Hour 14)
	- Flight "LH" (Date 20 04 2011) (Hour 16) (Hour 20)

- …

Computation via pattern matching:

travelTime  $::$  Connection  $\rightarrow$  Int travelTime (Flight \_ (Hour d) (Hour a)) =  $a - d + 2$ travelTime (Train  $_$  (Hour d) (Hour a)) =  $a - d + 1$ 

#### **User defined structured types**

• Internal representation for: Flight "LH" (Date 20 04 2011) (Hour 16) (Hour 20)



For:

 $data$  Date  $=$  Date Int Int Int  $data Time = Hour Int$  $data$  Connection = Train Date Time Time  $\vert$ Flight String Date Time Time

we get:

> :t Date Date :: Int  $\rightarrow$  Int  $\rightarrow$  Int  $\rightarrow$  Date > :t Hour Hour :: Int  $\rightarrow$  Time > :t Train Train :: Date  $\rightarrow$  Time  $\rightarrow$  Time  $\rightarrow$  Connection > :t Flight Flight :: String  $\rightarrow$  Date  $\rightarrow$  Time  $\rightarrow$  Time  $\rightarrow$  Connection

#### **Recursive data types**

- Like function definitions, data type declarations can also be recursive.
- Maybe the simplest example:

$$
data Nat = Zero | Succ Nat
$$

• Values of that type Nat:

Zero, Succ Zero, Succ (Succ Zero), …

• Computation via pattern matching:

 $add :: Nat \rightarrow Nat \rightarrow Nat$ add Zero  $m = m$ add (Succ n)  $m =$  Succ (add n m) • The definition:

add :: Nat  $\rightarrow$  Nat  $\rightarrow$  Nat add Zero  $m = m$ add (Succ n)  $m =$  Succ (add n m)

maybe reminds of:

 $concatenation [$  ys  $=$  ys concatenation  $(x : xs)$  ys =  $x : concatenation xs ys$ 

• Indeed, lists are internally defined as, essentially:

data  $[Bool] = [ ] | (:)$  Bool  $[Bool]$ 

• A somewhat more complex example:

data Expr  $=$  Lit Int | Add Expr Expr | Mul Expr Expr

• Possible values:

Lit 42 , Add (Lit 2) (Lit 7) , Mul (Lit 3) (Add (Lit 4) (Lit 0)) , …

• A "mini interpreter" :

eval :: Expr  $\rightarrow$  Int eval  $(Lit n)$  = n eval (Add  $e_1 e_2$ ) = eval  $e_1$  + eval  $e_2$ eval (Mul  $e_1 e_2$ ) = eval  $e_1$  \* eval  $e_2$ 

Or, general binary trees:

data Tree = Leaf Int | Node Tree Int Tree

with data constructors typed as follows:

> :t Leaf Leaf :: Int  $\rightarrow$  Tree > :t Node Node :: Tree  $\rightarrow$  Int  $\rightarrow$  Tree  $\rightarrow$  Tree

and (to be defined) functions for "flattening", prefix traversal, postfix traversal, …

#### **Mutually recursive data types**

• Finally, a somewhat artificial example:

$$
\begin{array}{c}\n\text{data } \text{T1} = \text{A} \text{ T2} \mid \text{E} \\
\text{data } \text{T2} = \text{B} \text{ T1}\n\end{array}
$$

• Possible values for T1:

E,  $A (B E)$ ,  $A (B (A (B E)))$ ,  $A (B (A (B (A (B E)))))$ , ...

• Possible values for T2:

B E , B (A (B E)) , B (A (B (A (B E)))) , …

• Computation:

as :: T1 
$$
\rightarrow
$$
 Int  
as (A t) = 1 + as' t  
as E = 0  
as' :: T2  $\rightarrow$  Int  
as' (B t) = as t

Type synonyms give new names for already existing types:

type String = [Char]

- in contrast to data, no constructors, no alternatives; also, really just a new name, not a new type
- can be nested:



but not recursive!