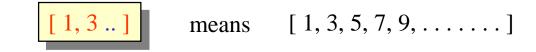
Programming Paradigms

Summer Term 2017

6th 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.,

 $\begin{array}{rcl} squares &=& [n^2 & | n \leftarrow naturals] \\ facs &=& [fac n & | n \leftarrow naturals] \\ primes &=& 2 : [n & | n \leftarrow odds, factors n == [1, n]] \end{array}$

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 ← squares, x < 100]</p>
[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 | x \leftarrow [1..n], n`mod` x == 0]

      primes
      = 2: [n | n \leftarrow odds, factors n == [1, n]]
```

• For example:

• 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 Int
sumsquare 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..n], ... are ultimately defined via recursive functions.

Different kinds of recursion

Structural recursion:

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

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

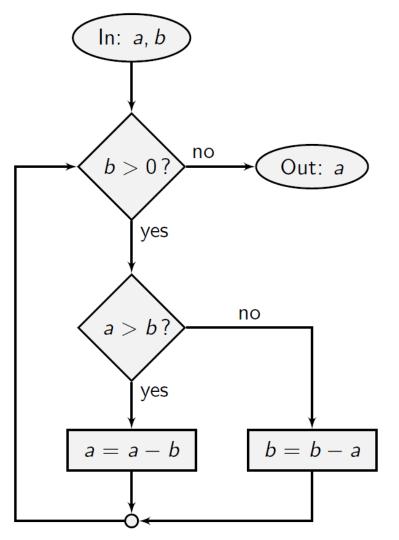
 $\begin{array}{l} sumsquare:: Int \rightarrow Int\\ sumsquare \ i \ = \ if \ i == 0 \ then \ 0 \ else \ i \ * \ i + sumsquare \ (i-1) \end{array}$

General/arbitrary recursion:

 $\begin{array}{ll} digsum:: Int \rightarrow Int \\ digsum n \mid n < 10 & = n \\ \mid otherwise & = let (d, m) = n `divMod` 10 \ in \ m + digsum d \end{array}$

Also: ack, ..., Quicksort, ...

Consider Euclid's algorithm:



euclid :: Int \rightarrow Int \rightarrow Int		
euclid a 0	= a	
euclid a b $ $ a $>$ b	= euclid (a – b) b	
euclid a b	= euclid a (b - a)	

- 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 <u>provably</u> 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

- 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 <u>strongly</u> and <u>statically</u> typed language.

• Function definitions and applications are checked for type consistency:

type checking

- In addition, Haskell offers type inference, 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:

$$f x = 2 * x + 3.5$$

g y = f 4 / y

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

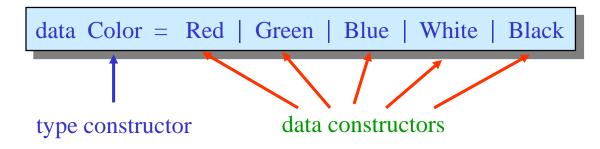
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Programming Paradigms

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

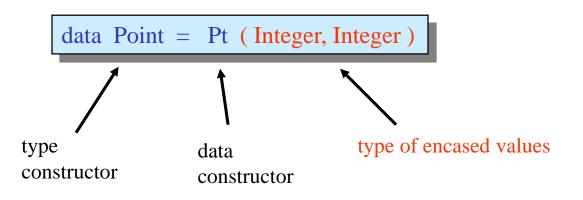
can arbitrarily be used as components in other types, such as for example in [(Color, Int)] with values e.g. [], [(Red, -5)] and [(Red, -5), (Blue, 2), (Red, 0)].

• Computation goes via pattern matching:

primaryCol :: Colo	$r \rightarrow Bool$
primaryCol Red	= True
primaryCol Green	= True
primaryCol Blue	= True
primaryCol _	= False

User defined structured types

• It is also possible to declare new types with <u>structure</u>, 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 | 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)

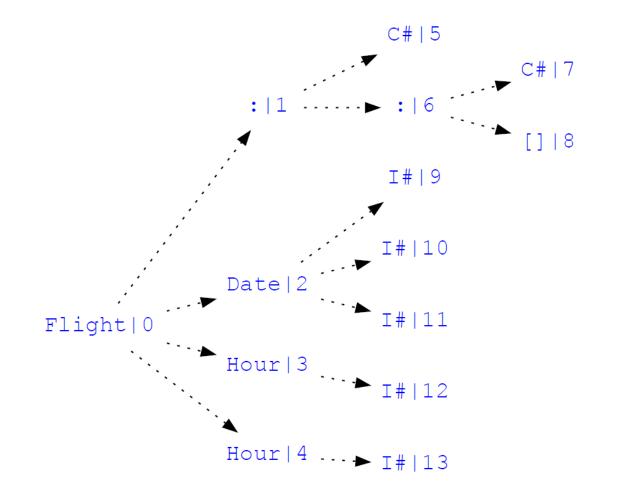
- ...

• Computation via pattern matching:

 $\begin{array}{l} \mbox{travelTime}:: \mbox{Connection} \rightarrow \mbox{Int} \\ \mbox{travelTime} (\mbox{Flight}_\ (\mbox{Hour d}) (\mbox{Hour a})) = a - d + 2 \\ \mbox{travelTime} (\mbox{Train}_\ (\mbox{Hour d}) (\mbox{Hour a})) & = a - d + 1 \end{array}$

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 | Flight String Date Time Time

we get:

 $\begin{array}{l} >: t \ Date \\ Date :: \ Int \rightarrow Int \rightarrow Int \rightarrow Date \\ >: t \ Hour \\ Hour :: \ Int \rightarrow Time \\ >: t \ Train \\ Train :: \ Date \rightarrow Time \rightarrow Time \rightarrow Connection \\ >: t \ Flight \\ Flight :: \ String \rightarrow Date \rightarrow Time \rightarrow Time \rightarrow Connection \end{array}$

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

• Values of that type Nat:

Zero, Succ Zero, Succ (Succ Zero), ...

• Computation via pattern matching:

 $\begin{array}{ll} add::Nat\rightarrow Nat\rightarrow Nat\\ add \ Zero & m=m\\ add\ (Succ\ n) & m=Succ\ (add\ n\ m) \end{array}$

• The definition:

 $\begin{array}{ll} add :: Nat \rightarrow Nat \rightarrow Nat \\ add Zero & m = m \\ add (Succ n) & m = Succ (add n m) \end{array}$

maybe reminds of:

concatenation []ys=ysconcatenation (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:

data T1 = A T2 | Edata T2 = B T1

• Possible values for T1:

E, A (B E), A (B (A (B E))), A (B (A (B (A (B E))))), \dots

• 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

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• 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:

type Pos	=	(Int, Int)
type Trans	=	$Pos \rightarrow Pos$

but not recursive!