

Lecture 1 — Functional Programming

Roy Crole

Department of Computer Science
University of Leicester

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What is Imperative Program — Adding up square numbers

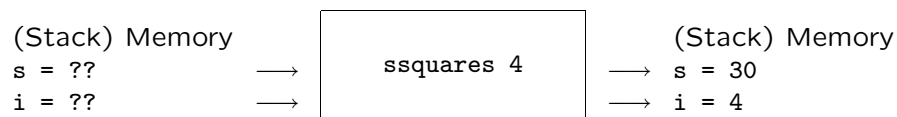
- **Problem:** Add up the first n square numbers

$$\text{ssquares } n = 0^2 + 1^2 + \dots + (n-1)^2 + n^2$$

- **Program:** We could write the following in Java

```
public int ssquares(int n){
  private int s,i;
  s=0; i=0;
  while (i<n) {i:=i+1;s:=s+i*i;}
}
```

- **Execution:** We may visualize running the program as follows



- **Key Idea:** Imperative programs transform the memory

Overview of Lecture 1

- **From Imperative to Functional Programming:**

- What is imperative programming?
- What is functional programming?

- **Key Ideas in Functional Programming:**

- **Types:** Provide the data for our programs
- **Functions:** These are our programs!

- **Advantages:**

- Haskell code is typically short
- Haskell code is close to the algorithms used

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The Two Aspects of Imperative Programs

- **Functional Content:** What the program achieves

- Programs take some input values and return an output value
- `ssquares` takes a number and returns the sum of the squares up to and including that number

- **Implementational Content:** How the program does it

- Imperative programs transform the memory using variable declarations and assignment statements
- `ssquares` uses variables `i` and `s` to represent locations in memory. The program transforms the memory until `s` contains the correct number.

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- **Motivation:** Problems arise as programs contain two aspects:
 - High-level algorithms and low-level implementational features
 - Humans are good at the former but not the latter
- **Idea:** The idea of functional programming is to
 - Concentrate on the functional (I/O) behaviour of programs
 - Leave memory management to the language implementation
- **Summary:** Functional languages are more abstract and avoid low level detail.

- **Motivation:** Recall from CO1003/4 that types model data.
- **Integers:** `Int` is the Haskell type $\{\dots, -2, -1, 0, 1, 2, \dots\}$
- **String:** `String` is the Haskell type of lists of characters.
- **Complex Datatypes:** Can be made from the basic types, eg lists of integers.
- **Built in Operations (“Functions on types”):**
 - Arithmetic Operations: `+` `*` `-` `div` `mod` `abs`
 - Ordering Operations: `>` `>=` `==` `/=` `<=` `<`

- **Types:** First we give the type of `summing-squares`

`hssquares :: Int -> Int`

- **Functions:** Our program is a function

`hssquares 0 = 0`
`hssquares n = n*n + hssquares(n-1)`

- **Evaluation:** Run the program by expanding definitions

`hssquares 2` \Rightarrow `2*2 + hssquares 1`
 \Rightarrow `4 + (1*1 + hssquares 0)`
 \Rightarrow `4 + (1 + 0)` \Rightarrow `5`

- **Comment:** No mention of memory in the code.

- **Intuition:** Recall from CO1011, a function $f: a \rightarrow b$ between sets associates to every input-value a unique output-value



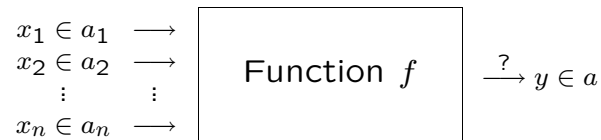
- **Example:** The *square* and *cube* functions are written

`square :: Int -> Int` `cube :: Int -> Int`
`square x = x * x` `cube x = x * square x`

- **In General:** In Haskell, functions are defined as follows

`<function-name> :: <input type>-><output type>`
`<function-name> <variable> = <expression>`

- **Intuition:** A function f with n inputs is written $f :: a_1 \rightarrow \dots \rightarrow a_n \rightarrow a$



- **Example:** The “distance” between two integers

```
diff :: Int -> Int -> Int
diff x y = abs (x - y)
```

- **In General:**

$\langle \text{function-name} \rangle :: \langle \text{type } 1 \rangle \rightarrow \dots \rightarrow \langle \text{type } n \rangle \rightarrow \langle \text{output-type} \rangle$

$\langle \text{function-name} \rangle \langle \text{variable } 1 \rangle \dots \langle \text{variable } n \rangle = \langle \text{expression} \rangle$

- **More Expressions:** Use quotes to turn functions into infix operations and brackets to turn infix operations into functions

```
5 * 4      (*) 5 4      mod 13 4      13 'mod' 4
5-(3*4)    (5-3)*4    7 >= (3*3)    5 * (-1)
```

- **Precedence:** Usual rules of precedence and bracketing apply

- **Example of Evaluation:**

```
cube(square3) => (square 3) * square (square 3)
               => (3*3) * ((square 3) * (square 3))
               => 9 * ((3*3) * (3*3))
               => (9 * (9*9))
               => 729
```

- The final outcome of an evaluation is called a *value*

- **Motivation:** Get the *result/output* of a function by *applying* it to an *argument/input*

- Write the function name followed by the input

- **In General:** Application is governed by the typing rule

- If f is a function of type $a \rightarrow b$, and e is an expression of type a ,

- then $f e$ is the result of applying f to e and has type b

- **Key Idea:** Expressions are fragments of code built by applying functions to arguments.

```
square 4      square (3 + 1)      square 3 + 1
cube (square 2) diff 6 7          square 2.2
```

- **Difference 1:** Level of Abstraction

- Imperative Programs include low level memory details

- Functional Programs describe only high-level algorithms

- **Difference 2:** How execution works

- Imperative Programming based upon memory transformation

- Functional Programming based upon expression evaluation

- **Difference 3:** Type systems

- Type systems play a key role in functional programming

- **Types:** A type is a collection of data values
- **Functions:** Transform inputs to outputs
 - We build complex expressions by defining functions and applying them to other expressions
 - The simplest (evaluated) expressions are (data) values
- **Evaluation:** Calculates the result of applying a function to an input
 - Expressions can be evaluated by hand or by HUGS to values
- **Now:** Go and look at the first practical!

- **New Types:** Today we shall learn about the following types
 - The type of booleans: `Bool`
 - The type of characters: `Char`
 - The type of strings: `String`
 - The type of fractions: `Float`
- **New Functions and Expressions:** And also about the following functions
 - Conditional expressions and guarded functions
 - Error handling and local declarations

Roy Crole

Department of Computer Science
University of Leicester

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- **Values of `Bool`** : Contains two values — `True`, `False`
- **Logical Operations:** Various built in functions
 - `&&` :: `Bool -> Bool -> Bool`
 - `||` :: `Bool -> Bool -> Bool`
 - `not` :: `Bool -> Bool`
- **Example:** Define the exclusive-OR function which takes as input two booleans and returns `True` just in case they are different

```
exOr :: Bool -> Bool -> Bool
```

- **Example:** Maximum of two numbers

```
maxi :: Int -> Int -> Int
maxi n m = if n>=m then n else m
```

- **Example:** Testing if an integer is 0

```
isZero :: Int -> Bool
isZero x = if (x == 0) then True else False
```

- **Conditionals:** A *conditional expression* has the form

```
if b then e1 else e2
```

where

- b is an expression of type Bool
- e1 and e2 are expressions with the same type

- **Elements of Char :** Letters, digits and special characters
- **Forming elements of Char :** Single quotes form characters:

```
'd' :: Char    '3' :: Char
```

- **Functions:** Characters have codes and conversion functions

```
chr :: Int -> Char    ord :: Char -> Int
```

- **Examples:** Try them out!

```
offset :: Int
offset = ord 'A' - ord 'a'

capitalize :: Char -> Char
capitalize ch = chr (ord ch + offset)

isLower :: Char -> Bool
isLower x = ('a' <= x) && (x <= 'z')
```

- **Example:** doubleMax returns double the maximum of its inputs

```
doubleMax :: Int -> Int -> Int
doubleMax x y
  | x >= y = 2*x
  | x < y  = 2*y
```

- **Definition:** A guarded function is of the form

$\langle \text{function-name} \rangle :: \langle \text{type 1} \rangle \rightarrow \langle \text{type n} \rangle \rightarrow \langle \text{output type} \rangle$

```
 $\langle \text{function-name} \rangle \langle \text{var 1} \rangle \dots \langle \text{var n} \rangle$ 
  |  $\langle \text{guard 1} \rangle = \langle \text{expression 1} \rangle$ 
  | ...           = ...
  |  $\langle \text{guard m} \rangle = \langle \text{expression m} \rangle$ 
```

where $\langle \text{guard 1} \rangle, \dots, \langle \text{guard m} \rangle :: \text{Bool}$

- **Elements of String:** Lists of characters
- **Forming elements of String:** Double quotes form strings

```
“Newcastle Utd”    “1a”
```

- **Special Strings:** Newline and Tab characters

```
“Super \n Alan”    “1\t2\t3”    putStr(“Super \n Alan”)
```

- **Combining Strings:** Strings can be combined by ++

```
“Super ” ++ “Alan ” ++ “Shearer” = “Super Alan Shearer”
```

- **Example:** duplicate gives two copies of a string

- **Elements of Float** : Contains decimals, eg -21.3, 23.1e-2

- **Built in Functions:** Arithmetic, Ordering, Trigonometric

- **Conversions:** Functions between Int and String

```
ceiling, floor, round  :: Float -> Int
fromIntegral          :: Int   -> Float
show                  :: Float -> String
read                  :: String -> Float
```

- **Overloading:** Overloading is when values/functions belong to several types

```
2 :: Int    show :: Int -> String
2 :: Float  show :: Float -> String
```

- **Motivation:** Functions will often depend on other functions

- **Example** : Summing the squares of two numbers

```
sq :: Int -> Int
sq x = x * x
```

```
sumSquares :: Int -> Int -> Int
sumSquares x y = sq x + sq y
```

- **Problem:** Such definitions clutter the top-level environment

- **Answer:** Local definitions allow auxiliary functions

```
sumSquares2 :: Int -> Int -> Int
sumSquares2 x y = sq x + sq y
                where sq z = z * z
```

- **Motivation:** Informative error messages for run-time errors

- **Example:** Dividing by zero will cause a run-time error

```
myDiv :: Float -> Float -> Float
myDiv x y = x/y
```

- **Solution:** Use an error message in a guarded definition

```
myDiv :: Float -> Float -> Float
myDiv x y
  | y /= 0    = x/y
  | otherwise = error "Attempt to divide by 0"
```

- **Execution:** If we try to divide by 0 we get

```
Prelude> mydiv 5 0
Program error: Attempt to divide by 0
```

- **Quadratic Equations:** The solutions of $ax^2 + bx + c = 0$ are

$$\frac{-b \pm \sqrt{b^2 - 4ac}}{2a}$$

- **Types:** Our program will have type

```
roots :: Float -> Float -> Float -> String
```

- **Guards:** There are 3 cases to check so use a guarded definition

```
roots a b c
  | a == 0      = ....
  | b*b-4*a*c == 0 = ....
  | otherwise   = ....
```

- **Code:** Now we can add in the answers

```

roots a b c
| a == 0           = error "Not a quadratic eqn"
| b*b-4*a*c == 0 = "One root:  " ++ show (-b/2*a)
| otherwise       = "Two roots:  " ++
  show ((-b + sqrt (b*b-4*a*c))/2*a) ++
  "and" ++
  show ((-b - sqrt (b*b-4*a*c))/2*a)

```

- **Problem:** This program uses several expressions repeatedly
 - Being cluttered, the program is hard to read
 - Similarly the program is hard to understand
 - Repeated evaluation of the same expression is inefficient

Today You Should Have Learned

- **Types:** We have learned about Haskell's basic types. For each type we learned
 - Its basic values (elements)
 - Its built in functions
- **Expressions:** How to write expressions involving
 - Conditional expressions and Guarded functions
 - Error Handling and Local Declarations

- **Local decs:** Expressions used repeatedly are made local

```

roots a b c
| a == 0           = error "Not a quadratic eqn"
| disc == 0       = "One root:  " ++ show centre
| otherwise       = "Two roots:  " ++
  show (centre + offset) ++
  "and" ++
  show (centre - offset)

where
disc = b*b-4*a*c
offset = (sqrt disc) / 2*a
centre = -b/2*a

```

Lecture 3 — New Types from Old

Roy Crole

Department of Computer Science
University of Leicester

October 6, 2005

- **Building New Types:** Today we will learn about the following compound types
 - Pairs
 - Tuples
 - Type Synonyms
- **Describing Types:** As with basic types, for each type we want to know
 - What are the values of the type
 - What expressions can we write and how to evaluate them

- **Examples:** For instance
 - The expression (5,3) has type (Int, Int)
 - The name ('Alan','Shearer') has type (String, String)
 - The performance ('Newcastle', 22) has type (String,Int)
- **Question:** What are the values of a pair type?
- **Answer:** A pair type contains pairs of values, ie
 - If e1 has type a and e2 has type b
 - Then (e1,e2) has type (a,b)

- **Motivation:** Data for programs modelled by values of a type
- **Problem:** Single values in basic types too simple for real data
- **Example:** A point on a plane can be specified by
 - A number for the x-coordinate and another for the y-coordinate
- **Example:** A person's complete name could be specified by
 - A string for the first name and another for the second name
- **Example:** The performance of a football team could be
 - A string for the team and a number for the points

- **Types:** Pair types can be used as input and/or output types
- **Examples:** The built in functions `fst` and `snd` are vital

```
fst :: (a,b) -> a
fst (x,y) = x

winUpdate :: (String,Int) -> (String,Int)
winUpdate (x,y) = (x,y+3)

movePoint :: Int -> Int -> (Int,Int) -> (Int,Int)
movePoint m n (x,y) = (x+m,y+n)
```
- **Key Idea:** If input is a pair-type, use (`<var1>`, `<var2>`) in definition
- **Key Idea:** If output is a pair-type, result is often (`<exp1>`, `<exp2>`)

- **Motivation:** Some data consists of more than two parts
- **Example:** Person on a mailing list
 - Specified by name, telephone number, and age
 - A person p on the list can have type $(String, Int, Int)$
- **Idea:** Generalise pairs of types to collections of types
- **Type Rule:** Given types a_1, \dots, a_n , then (a_1, \dots, a_n) is a type
- **Expression Formation:** Given expressions $e_1 :: a_1, \dots, e_n :: a_n$, then

$(e_1, \dots, e_n) :: (a_1, \dots, a_n)$

- **Definition:** Functions now have the form
 $\langle \text{function-name} \rangle :: \langle \text{type } 1 \rangle \rightarrow \dots \rightarrow \langle \text{type } n \rangle \rightarrow \langle \text{out-type} \rangle$
 $\langle \text{function-name} \rangle \langle \text{pat } 1 \rangle \dots \langle \text{pat } n \rangle = \langle \text{exp } n \rangle$
- **Patterns:** Patterns are
 - Variables x : Use for any type
 - Constants 0 , True , ‘‘cherry’’ : Definition by cases
 - Tuples (x, \dots, z) : If the argument has a tuple-type
 - Wildcards $_$: If the output doesn't use the input
- **In general:** Use several lines and mix patterns.

- **Example 1:** Write a function to test if a customer is an adult
 $\text{isAdult} :: (String, Int, Int) \rightarrow \text{Bool}$
 $\text{isAdult } (\text{name}, \text{tel}, \text{age}) = (\text{age} \geq 18)$
- **Example 2:** Write a function to update the telephone number
 $\text{updateMove} :: (String, Int, Int) \rightarrow \text{Int} \rightarrow (String, Int, Int)$
- **Example 3:** Write a function to update age after a birthday
 $\text{updateAge} :: (String, Int, Int) \rightarrow (String, Int, Int)$

- **Example:** Using values and wildcards
 $\text{isZero} :: \text{Int} \rightarrow \text{Bool}$
 $\text{isZero } 0 = \text{True}$
 $\text{isZero } _ = \text{False}$
- **Example:** Using tuples and multiple arguments
 $\text{expand} :: \text{Int} \rightarrow (\text{Int}, \text{Int}) \rightarrow (\text{Int}, \text{Int}, \text{Int})$
 $\text{expand } n (x, y) = (n, n*x, n*y)$
- **Example:** Days in the month
 $\text{days} :: \text{String} \rightarrow \text{Int} \rightarrow \text{Int}$
 $\text{days } \text{‘‘January’’ } x = 31$
 $\text{days } \text{‘‘February’’ } x = \text{if isLeap } x \text{ then } 29 \text{ else } 28$
 $\text{days } \text{‘‘March’’ } x = 31$
 \dots

- **Motivation:** More descriptive names for particular types.
- **Definition:** Type synonyms are declared with the keyword `type`.

```
type Team = String
type Goals = Int
type Match = ((Team,Goals), (Team,Goals))

numu :: Match
numu = (('Newcastle', 4), ('Manchester Utd', 3))
```

- **Functions:** Types of functions are more descriptive, same code

```
homeTeam :: Match -> Team
totalGoals :: Match -> Goals
```

Lecture 4 — List Types

Roy Crole

Department of Computer Science
University of Leicester

October 6, 2005

- **Tuples:** Collections of data from other types
- **Pairs:** Pairs, triples etc are examples of tuples
- **Type synonyms:** Make programs easier to understand
- **Pattern Matching:** General description of functions covering definition by cases, tuples etc.

- **Pitfall!** What is the difference between

```
addPair :: (Int,Int) -> Int
addPair (x,y) = x + y
```

```
addTwo :: Int -> Int -> Int
addTwo x y = x + y
```

Overview of Lecture 4 — List Types

- **Lists:** What are lists?
 - Forming list types
 - Forming elements of list types
- **Functions over lists:** Some old friends, some new friends
 - Functions from CO1003/4: `cons`, `append`, `head`, `tail`
 - Some new functions: `map`, `filter`
- **Clarity:** Unlike Java, Haskell treatment of lists is clear
 - No list iterators!

- **Example 1:** `[3, 5, 14] :: [Int]` and `[3, 4+1, double 7] :: [Int]`
- **Example 3:** `['d','t','g'] :: [Char]`
- **Example 4:** `[['d'], ['d','t'], ['d','t','g']] :: [[Char]]`
- **Example 5:** `[double, square, cube] :: [Int -> Int]`
- **Empty List:** The empty list is `[]` and belongs to all list types
- **List Expressions:** Lists are written using square brackets `[...]`
 - If `e1, ..., en` are expressions of type `a`
 - Then `[e1, ..., en]` is an expression of type `[a]`

- **Head and Tail:** Head gives the first element of a list, tail the remainder

```
head [double, square] = double
head ([5,6]++[6,7])   = 5
```

```
tail [double, square] = [square]
tail ([5,6]++[6,7])   = [6,6,7]
```

- **Length and Sum:** The length of a list and the sum of a list of integers

```
length (tail [1,2,3]) = 2
sum [1+4,8,45] = 58
```

- **Sequences:** The list of integers from 1 to `n` is written

```
[1 .. n]
```

- **Cons:** The cons function `:` adds an element to a list

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

```
1      : [2,3,4]   = [1,2,3,4]
addone : [square]  = [addone, square]
'a'    : ['b', 'z'] = ['a', 'b', 'z']
```

- **Append:** Append joins two lists together

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

```
[True, True] ++ [False] = [True, True, False]
[1,2] ++ ([3] ++ [4,5]) = [1,2,3,4,5]
([1,2] ++ [3]) ++ [4,5] = [1,2,3,4,5]
[] ++ [54.6, 67.5]      = [54.6, 67.5]
[6,5] ++ (4 : [7,3])    = [6,5,4,7,3]
```

- **Map:** Map is a function which has two inputs.

- The first input is a function eg `f`
- The second is a list eg `[e1,e1,e3]`

The output is the list obtained by applying the function to every element of the input list eg `[f e1, f e2, f e3]`

- **Filter:** Filter is a function which has two inputs.

- The first is a *test*, ie a function returning a `Bool`.
- The second is a list

The output is the list of elements of the input list which the function maps to `True`, ie those elements which pass the test.

- **Even Numbers:** The even numbers less than or equal to `n`

– `evens :: Int -> [Int]`

- **Solution 1** — Using `filter`.

```
evens2 :: Int -> [Int]
evens2 n = filter isEven [1 .. n]
          where isEven x = (x `mod` 2 == 0)
```

- **Solution 2** — Using `map`

Lecture 5 — List Comprehensions

Roy Crole

Department of Computer Science
University of Leicester

October 6, 2005

- **Types:** We have looked at list types

– What list types and list expressions looks like

– What built in functions are available

- **New Functions:**

– Map: Apply a function to every member of a list

– Filter: Delete those that don't satisfy a property or test

- **Algorithms:** Develop an algorithm by asking

– Can I solve this problem by applying a function to every member of a list or by deleting certain elements.

Overview of Lecture 5

- **Recall Map:** Map is a function which has two inputs.

`map add2 [2, 5, 6] = [4, 7, 8]`

- **Recall Filter:** Filter is a function which has two inputs.

`filter isEven [2, 3, 4, 5, 6, 7] = [2, 4, 6]`

- **List comprehension:** An alternative way of writing lists

– Definition of list comprehension

– Comparison with `map` and `filter`

- **Example 1:** If `ex = [2,4,7]` then

```
[ 2*e | e <- xs ] = [4,8,14]
```

- **Example 2:** If `isEven :: Int->Bool` tests for even-ness

```
[ isEven e | e <- xs ] = [True,True,False]
```

- **In General:** (Simple) list comprehensions are of the form

```
[ <exp> | <variable> <- <list-exp> ]
```

- **Evaluation:** The meaning of a list comprehension is

- Take each element of `list-exp`, evaluate the expression `exp` for each element and return the results in a list.

- **Intuition:** List Comprehension can also select elements from a list

- **Example:** We can select the even numbers in a list

```
[ e | e <- l, isEven e ]
```

- **Example:** Selecting names beginning with A

```
names :: [String] -> [String]
names l :: [ e | e <- l, head e == 'A' ]
```

- **Example:** Combining selection and applying functions

```
doubleEven :: [Int] -> [Int]
doubleEven l :: [ 2*e | e <- l, isEven e ]
```

- **Example 1:** A function which doubles a list's elements

```
double :: [Int] -> [Int]
```

- **Example 2:** A function which tags an integer with its evenness

```
isEvenList :: [Int] -> [(Int,Bool)]
```

- **Example 3:** A function to add pairs of numbers

```
addpairs :: [(Int,Int)] -> [Int]
```

- **In general:** `map f l = [f x | x <- l]`

- **In General:** These list comprehensions are of the form

```
[ <exp> | <variable> <- <list-exp>, <test> ]
```

- **Example:** Infact, we can use several tests — if `l = [2,5,8,10]`

```
[ 2*e | e <- l, isEven e, e>3 ] = [16,20]
```

- **Key Example:** Cartesian product of two lists is a list of all pairs, such that for each pair, the first component comes from the first list and the second component from the second list.

```
[ (x,y) | x<-[1,2,3], y<-['a','b','c'] ]
= [(1,'a'), (1,'b') ... ]
```

```
league :: [Team]
games = [ (t1,t2) | t1 <- league, t2 <- league, t1 /= t2 ]
```

- **Problem:** Given a list remove all duplicate entries

- **Algorithm:** Given a list,
 - Keep first element
 - Delete all occurrences of the first element
 - Repeat the process on the tail

- **Code:**

Lecture 6 — Recursion over Natural Numbers

Roy Crole

Department of Computer Science
University of Leicester

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- **List Types:** We have looked at list types
 - What list types and list expressions looks like
 - What built in functions are available

- **List comprehensions:** Like `filter` and `map`. They allow us to
 - Select elements of a list
 - Delete those that dont satisfy certain properties
 - Apply a function to each element of the remainder

Overview of Lecture 6

- **Recursion:** General features of recursion
 - What is a recursive function?
 - How do we write recursive functions?
 - How do we evaluate recursive functions?

- **Recursion over Natural Numbers:** Special features
 - How can we guarantee evaluation works?
 - Recursion using patterns.
 - Avoiding negative input.

What is recursion?

- **Example:** Adding up the first n squares

$$\text{hssquares } n = 0^2 + 1^2 + \dots + (n-1)^2 + n^2$$

- **Types:** First we give the type of summing-squares

```
hssquares :: Int -> Int
```

- **Definitions:** Our program is a function

```
hssquares 0 = 0
hssquares n = n*n + hssquares(n-1)
```

- **Key Idea:** `hssquares` is recursive as its definition contains `hssquares` in a right-hand side – the function name “recurs”.

Examples of evaluation

- **Example 1:** Let's calculate `hssquares 4`

```
hssquares 4 => 4*4 + hssquares 3
              => 16 + (3*3 + hssquares 2)
              ...
              => 16 + (9 + .. (1 + hssquares 0))
              => 16 + (9 + ... (1 + 0))    => 30
```

- **Example 2:** Here is a non-terminating function

```
mydouble n = n + mydouble (n/2)
mydouble 4 => 4 + mydouble 2
            => 4 + 2 + mydouble 1
            => 4 + 2 + 1 + mydouble 0.5 => .....
```

- **Question:** Will evaluation stop?

General Definitions

- **Definition:** A function is *recursive* if the name recurs in its definition.

- **Intuition:** You will have seen recursion in action before

- Imperative procedures which call themselves
- Divide-and-conquer algorithms

- **Why Recursion:** Recursive definitions tend to be

- Shorter, more understandable and easier to prove correct
- Compare with a non-recursive solution

$$\text{nrssquares } n = n * (n+0.5) * (n+1)/3$$

Problems with Recursion

- **Questions:** There are some outstanding problems

1. Is `hssquares` defined for every number?
2. Does an evaluation of a recursive function always terminate?
3. What happens if `hssquares` is applied to a negative number?
4. Are these recursive definitions sensible: $f\ n = f\ n$, $g\ n = g\ (n+1)$

- **Answers:** Here are the answers

1. Yes: The variable pattern matches every input.
2. Not always: See examples.
3. Trouble: Evaluation doesn't terminate.
4. No: Why not?

- **Motivation:** Restrict definitions to get better behaviour
- **Idea:** Many functions defined by three cases
 - A non-recursive call selected by the pattern 0
 - A recursive call selected by the pattern $n+1$ (*matches numbers* ≥ 1)
 - The error case deals with negative input

- **Example** Our program now looks like

```
hssquares2 0      = 0
hssquares2 (n+1) = (n+1)*(n+1) + hssquares n
hssquares2 x      = error "Negative input"
```

- **In General:** Use the following style of definition

```
<function-name> 0      = <exp 1>
<function-name> (n+1) = <exp 2>
<function-name> x      = error<message>
```

where

```
<exp 1> does not contain <function-name>
<exp 2> may contain    <function-name> applied to n
```

- **Evaluation:** Termination guaranteed!
 - If the input evaluates to 0, evaluate $\langle \text{exp } 1 \rangle$
 - If not, if the input is greater than 0, evaluate $\langle \text{exp } 2 \rangle$
 - If neither, return the error message

- **Example 1:** star uses recursion over Int to return a string

```
star      :: Int -> String
star 0    = []
star (n+1) = '*' : star n
star n    = error "Negative input"
```

- **Example 2:** power is recursive in its second argument

```
power      :: Float -> Int -> Float
power x 0  = 1
power x (n+1) = x * power x n
power x n  = error "Negative input"
```

- **Problem:** Produce a table for `perf :: Int -> (String, Int)` where `perf 1 = ("Arsenal",4)` etc.

- **Stage 1:** We need some headings and then the actual table

```
printTable :: Int -> IO()
```

```
printTable numberTeams = putStr(header ++ rows numberTeams)
  where
    header = "Team\t Points\n"
```

- **Stage 2:** Convert each "row" to a string, recursively.

```
rows      :: Int -> String
rows 0    = .....
rows (n+1) = .....
rows _   = .....
```


The Function rows

- **Base Case:** If we want no entries, then just return []

```
rows 0 = []
```

- **Recursive Case:** Convert $(n + 1)$ -rows by
 - recursively converting the first n -rows, and
 - adding on the $(n+1)$ -th row
- **Code:** Code for the recursive call

Today You Should Have Learned

- **Recursion:** Allows new functions to be written.
 - Advantages: Clarity, brevity, tractability
 - Disadvantages: Evaluation may not stop
- **Primitive Recursion:** Avoids bad behaviour of some recursive functions
 - The value at 0 is non-recursive
 - Each recursive call uses a smaller input
 - An error-clause catches negative inputs
- **Algorithm:** Ask yourself, what needs to be done to the recursive call to get the answer.

The Final Version

```
perf :: Int -> (String,Int)
perf 1 = ("Arsenal",4)
perf 2 = ("Notts",5)
perf 3 = ("Chelsea",7)
perf n = error "perf out of range"
```

```
rows :: Int -> String
rows 0 = []
rows (n+1) = rows n ++
             fst(perf(n+1)) ++ "\t\t " ++
             show(snd(perf(n+1))) ++ "\n"
rows _ = error "rows out of range"
```

```
printTable :: Int -> IO()
printTable numberTeams = putStr(header ++ rows numberTeams)
                        where
                          header = "Team\t\t Points\n"
```

Lecture 7 — Recursion over Lists

Roy Crole

Department of Computer Science
University of Leicester

October 6, 2005

- **Lists:** Another look at lists
 - Lists are a recursive structure
 - Every list can be formed by [] and :
- **List Recursion:** Primitive recursion for Lists
 - How do we write primitive recursive functions
 - Examples — ++, length, head, tail, take, drop, zip
- **Avoiding Recursion?:** List comprehensions revisited

- **Recall:** The two basic operations concerning lists
 - The empty list []
 - The cons operator (:) :: a -> [a] -> [a]
- **Key Idea:** Every list is either empty, or of the form x:xs
[2,3,7] = 2:3:7:[] [True, False] = True:False:[]
- **Recursion:** Define recursive functions using the scheme
 - Non-recursive call: Define the function on the empty list []
 - Recursive call: Define the function on (x:xs) by using the function only on xs

- **Question:** This lecture is about the following question
 - We know what a recursive function over Int is
 - What is a recursive function over lists?
- **Answer:** In general, the answer is the same as before
 - A recursive function mentions itself in its definition
 - Evaluating the function may reintroduce the function
 - Hopefully this will stop at the answer

- **Example 1:** Doubling every element of an integer list

```
double :: [Int] -> [Int]
double [] = []
double (x:xs) = (2*x) : double xs
```
- **Example 2:** Selecting the even members of a list

```
onlyEvens :: [Int] -> [Int]
onlyEvens [] = []
onlyEvens (x:xs) = if isEven x then x:rest else rest
                    where rest = onlyEvens xs
```
- **Example 3:** Flattening some lists

```
flatten :: [[a]] -> [a]
flatten [] = []
flatten (x:xs) = x ++ flatten xs
```

- **Definition:** Primitive Recursive List Functions are given by

$$\begin{aligned}\langle \text{function-name} \rangle [] &= \langle \text{expression 1} \rangle \\ \langle \text{function-name} \rangle (x:xs) &= \langle \text{expression 2} \rangle\end{aligned}$$

where

$$\begin{aligned}\langle \text{expression 1} \rangle &\text{ does not contain } \langle \text{function-name} \rangle \\ \langle \text{expression 2} \rangle &\text{ may contain expressions } \langle \text{function-name} \rangle xs\end{aligned}$$

- **Compare:** Very similar to recursion over Int

$$\begin{aligned}\langle \text{function-name} \rangle 0 &= \langle \text{expression 1} \rangle \\ \langle \text{function-name} \rangle (n+1) &= \langle \text{expression 2} \rangle\end{aligned}$$

where

$$\begin{aligned}\langle \text{expression 1} \rangle &\text{ does not contain } \langle \text{function-name} \rangle \\ \langle \text{expression 2} \rangle &\text{ may contain expressions } \langle \text{function-name} \rangle n\end{aligned}$$

- **Mapping:** Applying a function to every member of the list

$$\begin{aligned}\text{double } [2,3,72,1] &= [2*2, 2*3, 2*72, 2*1] \\ \text{isEven } [2,3,72,1] &= [\text{True}, \text{False}, \text{True}, \text{False}]\end{aligned}$$

- **Filtering:** Selecting particular elements

$$\text{onlyEvens } [2,3,72,1] = [2,72]$$

- **Taking Lists Apart:** head, tail, take, drop

- **Combining Lists:** zip

- **Folding:** Combining the elements of the list

$$\text{sumList } [2,3,7,2,1] = 2 + 3 + 7 + 2 + 1$$

- **Example 4:** Append is defined recursively

$$\text{append} :: [a] \rightarrow [a] \rightarrow [a]$$

- **Example 5:** Testing if an integer is an element of a list

$$\text{member} :: \text{Int} \rightarrow [\text{Int}] \rightarrow \text{Bool}$$

- **Example 6:** Reversing a list

$$\text{reverse} :: [a] \rightarrow [a]$$

- **Recall:** List comprehensions look like

$$[\langle \text{exp} \rangle \mid \langle \text{variable} \rangle \leftarrow \langle \text{list-exp} \rangle, \langle \text{test} \rangle]$$

- **Intuition:** Roughly speaking this means

- Take each element of the list $\langle \text{list-exp} \rangle$
- Check they satisfy $\langle \text{test} \rangle$
- Form a list by applying $\langle \text{exp} \rangle$ to those that do

- **Idea:** Equivalent to filtering and then mapping. As these are recursive, so are list comprehensions although the recursion is hidden

- **List Recursion:** Lists are recursive data structures
 - Hence, functions over lists tend to be recursive
 - But, as before, general recursion is badly behaved
- **Primitive List Recursion:** Similar to natural numbers
 - A non-recursive call using the pattern []
 - A recursive call using the pattern (x:xs)
- **List comprehension:** An alternative way of doing some recursion

Overview of Lecture 8

- **Problem:** Our restrictions on recursive functions are too severe
- **Solution:** New definitional formats which keep termination
 - Using new patterns
 - Generalising the recursion scheme
- **Examples:** Applications to integers and lists
- **Sorting Algorithms:** What is a sorting algorithm?
 - Insertion Sort, Quicksort and Mergesort

Lecture 8 — More Complex Recursion

Roy Crole

Department of Computer Science
University of Leicester

October 6, 2005

More general forms of primitive recursion

- **Recall:** Our primitive recursive functions follow the scheme
 - **Base Case:** Define the function non-recursively at 0
 - **Inductive Case:** Define the function at (n+1) in terms of the function at n

$$\begin{aligned} \langle \text{function-name} \rangle 0 &= \langle \text{exp 1} \rangle \\ \langle \text{function-name} \rangle (n+1) &= \langle \text{exp 2} \rangle \\ \langle \text{function-name} \rangle x &= \text{error} \langle \text{message} \rangle \end{aligned}$$

where

$\langle \text{expression 1} \rangle$ does not contain $\langle \text{function-name} \rangle$
 $\langle \text{expression 2} \rangle$ may contain $\langle \text{function-name} \rangle$ applied to n

- **Motivation:** But some functions do not fit this scheme, requiring more complex patterns

- **Example:** The first Fibonacci numbers are 0,1. For each subsequent Fibonacci number, add the previous two together

0, 1, 1, 2, 3, 5, 8, 13, 21, 34

- **Problem:** The following does not terminate on input 1

```
fib 0 = 0
fib (n+1) = fib n + fib (n-1)
```

- **Solution:** The new *pattern* (n+2) matches inputs ≥ 2

```
fib 0 = 0
fib 1 = 1
fib (n+2) = fib (n+1) + fib n
```

- **In General:** There are patterns (n+1), (n+2), (n+3)

- **Recall:** With integers, we used more general patterns.
- **Idea:** Use (x:(y:xs)) pattern to access first two elements
- **Example:** We want a function to delete every second element

```
delete [2,3,5,7,9,5,7] = [2,5,9,7]
```

- **Solution:** Here is the code

```
delete :: [a] -> [a]
delete [] = []
delete [x] = [x]
delete (x:(y:xs)) = x : delete xs
```

- **Example:** To delete every third element use pattern (x:(y:(z:xs)))

- **Recall:** Our primitive recursive functions follow the pattern
 - **Base Case:** Defines the function at [] non-recursively
 - **Inductive Case:** Defines the function at (x:xs) in terms of the function at xs

```
<function-name> [] = <exp 1>
<function-name> (x:xs) = <exp 2>
```

where

```
<expression 1> does not contain <function-name>
<expression 2> may contain <function-name> applied to xs
```

- **Motivation:** As with integers, some functions don't fit this shape

- **Example 1:** Summing pairs in a list of pairs

```
sumPairs :: [(Int,Int)] -> Int
```

- **Example 2:** Unzipping lists `unZip :: [(a,b)] -> ([a],[b])`

Sorting Algorithms 1: Insertsort

- **Problem:** A sorting algorithm rearranges a list in order

`sort [2,7,13,5,0,4] = [0,2,4,5,7,13]`

- **Recursion:** Such algorithms usually recursively sort a smaller list

- **Insertsort Alg:** To sort a list, sort the tail recursively, and then insert the head

- **Code:**

```
inssort :: [Int] -> [Int]
inssort [] = []
inssort (x:xs) = insert x (inssort xs)
```

where `insert` puts the number `x` in the correct place

Sorting Algorithms 2: Quicksort

- **Quicksort Alg:** Given a list `l` and a number `n` in the list

`sort l = sort those elements less than n ++`
`number of occurrences of n ++`
`sort those elements greater than n`

- **Code:** The algorithm may be coded

```
qsort :: [Int] -> [Int]
qsort [] = []
qsort (x:xs) = qsort (less x xs) ++
               occs x (x:xs) ++
               qsort (more x xs)
```

where `less`, `occs`, `more` are auxiliary functions

The function insert

- **Patterns:** `insert` takes two arguments, number and list

- The recursion for `insert` doesn't depend on the number
- The recursion for `insert` does depend on whether the list is empty or not — use the `[]` and `(x:xs)` patterns

- **Code:** Here is the final code

```
insert :: Int -> [Int] -> [Int]
insert n [] = [n]
insert n (x:xs)
  | n <= x    = n:x:xs
  | otherwise = x:(insert n xs)
```

Defining the Auxiliary Functions

- **Problem:** The auxiliary functions can be specified

- `less` takes a number and a list and returns those elements of the list less than the number
- `occs` takes a number and a list and returns the occurrences of the number in the list
- `more` takes a number and a list and returns those elements of the list more than the number

- **Code:** Using list comprehensions gives short code

```
less, occs, more :: Int -> [Int] -> [Int]
less n xs = [x | x <- xs, x < n]
occs n xs = [x | x <- xs, x == n]
more n xs = [x | x <- xs, x > n]
```

- **Mergesort Alg:** Split the list in half, recursively sort each half and merge the results

- **Code:** Overall function reflects the algorithm

```
msortBy [] = []
msortBy [x] = [x]
msortBy xs = merge (msortBy ys) (msortBy ws)
  where (ys,ws) = (take l xs, drop l xs)
        l = length xs `div` 2
```

where merge combines two sorted lists

```
merge [] ys = ys
merge xs [] = xs
merge (x:xs) (y:ys) = if x<y then x : merge xs (y:ys)
                      else y : merge (x:xs) ys
```

Lecture 9 — Higher Order Functions

Roy Crole

Department of Computer Science
University of Leicester

October 6, 2005

- **Recursion Schemes:** We've generalised the recursion schemes to allow more functions to be written
 - More general patterns
 - Recursive calls to ANY smaller value
- **Examples:** Applied them to recursion over integers and lists
- **Sorting Algorithms:** We've put these ideas into practice by defining three sorting algorithms
 - Insertion Sort
 - QuickSort
 - MergeSort

Overview of Lecture 9

- **Motivation:** Why do we want higher order functions
- **Definition:** What is a higher order function
- **Examples:**
 - Mapping: Applying a function to every member of a list
 - Filtering: Selecting elements of a list satisfying a property
- **Application:** Higher order sorting algorithms

- **Example 1:** A function to double the elements of a list

```
doubleList :: [Int] -> [Int]
doubleList [] = []
doubleList (x:xs) = (2*x) : doubleList xs
```

- **Example 2:** A function to square the elements of a list

```
squareList :: [Int] -> [Int]
squareList [] = []
squareList (x:xs) = (x*x) : squareList xs
```

- **Example 3:** A function to increment the elements of a list

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

- **The Idea Coded:**

```
map f [] = []
map f (x:xs) = (fx) : map f xs
```

- **Advantages:** There are several advantages

- Shortens code as previous examples are given by

```
doubleList xs = map double xs
squareList xs = map square xs
incList xs = map inc xs
```

- Captures the algorithmic content and is easier to understand
- Easier code-modification and code re-use

- **Problem:** Three separate definitions despite a clear pattern

- **Intuition:** Examples apply a function to each member of a list

```
function :: Int -> Int
```

```
functionList :: [Int] -> [Int]
functionList [] = []
functionList (x:xs) = (function x) : functionList xs
```

where in our previous examples function is

```
double    square    inc
```

- **Key Idea:** Make auxiliary function `function` an input

- **Question:** What is the type of `map`?

- First argument is a function
- Second argument is a list whose elements have the same type and the input of the function.
- Result is a list whose elements are the output type of the function.

- **Answer:** So overall type is `map :: (a -> b) -> [a] -> [b]`
- **Definition:** A function is higher-order if an input is a function.

- **Another Example:** Type of `filter` is

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


- **Idea:** Recall our implementation of *quicksort*

```
qsort :: Ord a => [a] -> [a]
qsort [] = []
qsort (x:xs) = qsort less ++ occs ++ qsort more
  where
    less = [e | e<-xs, e<x]
    occs = x : [e | e<-xs, e==x]
    more = [e | e<-xs, e>x]
```

- **Polymorphism:** Quicksort requires an order on the elements:
 - The output list depends upon the order on the elements
 - This requirement is reflected in type class information `Ord a`
 - Don't worry about type classes as they are beyond this course

- **Motivation:** But what if we want other orders, eg
 - Sort teams in order of names, not points
 - Sort on points, but if two teams have the same points, compare names
- **Key Idea:** Make the comparison a parameter of quicksort

```
qsortCp :: (a -> a -> Bool) -> [a] -> [a]
qsortCp ord [] = []
qsortCp ord (x:xs) = qsortCp ord less ++ occs ++ qsortCp ord more
  where less = [e | e<-xs, ord e x]
        occs = x : [e | e<-xs, e == x]
        more = [e | e<-xs, ord x e]
```

- **Example:** Games tables might have type `[(Team,Points)]`
- **Problem:** How can we order the table?

```
Arsenal 16
AVilla  16
Derby   10
Birm.   4
...
```

- **Solution:** Write a new function for this problem

```
tSort [] = []
tSort (x:xs) = tSort less ++ [x] ++ tSort more
  where more = [e | e<-xs, snd e > snd x]
        less = [e | e<-xs, snd e < snd x]
```

- What did we assume here?

- **Key Idea:** To use a higher order sorting algorithm, use the required order to define the function to *sort by*
- **Example 1:** To sort by names
 - `ord (t, p) (t', p') = t < t'`
- **Example 2:** To sort by points and then names
 - `ord (t, p) (t', p') = (p < p') || (p == p' && t < t')`
- What should we assume about `ord`?

- **Higher Order Functions:** Functions which takes functions as input
 - Facilitates code reuse and more abstract code
 - Many list functions are either `map`, `filter` or `fold`
- **HO Sorting:** An application of higher order functions to sorting
 - Produces more powerful sorting
 - Order of resulting list determined by a function
 - Lexicographic order allows us to try one order and then another

Overview of Lecture 10

- **Motivation:** Some examples leading to polymorphism
- **Definition:** What is *parametric* polymorphism?
 - What is a polymorphic type?
 - What is a polymorphic function?
 - Polymorphism and higher order functions
 - Applying polymorphic functions to polymorphic expressions

Lecture 10 — (Parametric) Polymorphism

Roy Crole

Department of Computer Science
University of Leicester

October 6, 2005

Monomorphic length

- **Example:** Let us define the length of a list of integers

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

- **Problem:** We want to evaluate the length of a list of characters

```
Prelude> mylength ['a', 'g']
ERROR: Type error in application
*** expression : mylength ['a','g']
*** term      : ['a','g']
*** type     : [Char]
*** does not match : [Int]
```

- **Solution:** Define a new length function for lists of characters
... but this is not very efficient!

- **Better Solution:** The algorithm's input depends on the list type, but not on the type of integers.
- **Idea:** An alternative approach to typing `mylength`
 - There is one input and one output: `mylength :: a -> b`
 - The output is an integer: `mylength :: a -> Int`
 - The input is a list: `mylength :: [c] -> Int`
 - There is nothing more to infer from the code of `mylength` so
`mylength :: [c] -> Int`
This is an efficient function - works at all list types!

- **Polymorphism** is the ability to appear in different forms
- **Definition:** A type is *parametric polymorphic* iff it contains type variables (that is, type parameters).
- **Definition:** A function is *parametric polymorphic* iff it can be called on different types of input, and it is implemented by (code for) a single algorithm
- **Definition:** A function is *overloaded* iff it can be called on different types of input, and for each type of input, the function is implemented by (code for) a particular algorithm.
- **Examples:** Of overloading are the arithmetic operators: integer and floating-point addition.

- **Types:** Now we will deal with the following types:
 - Basic, built in types: `Int`, `Char`, `Bool`, `String`, `Float`
 - Type variables representing any type: `a`, `b`, `c`, ...
 - Types built with type constructors: `[]`, `->`, `(,)`
`[Int]` `a->a` `a->b` `a->Bool` `(String,a->a)` `[a->Bool]`
 - Type synonyms: `type <type-name> = <type-expression>`
`type Point = (Int,Int)`
`type Line = (Point,Point)`
`type Test = a->Bool`

- **Key Idea:** Expressions have many types
 - Amongst these is a *principle* type
- **Example:** What is the type of `id x = x`
 - `id` sends an integer to an integer. So `id :: Int -> Int`
 - `id` sends a list of type `a` to a list of type `a`. So `id :: [a] -> [a]`
 - `id` sends an expression of type `b` to an expression of type `b`.
So `id :: b -> b`
- **Principle Type:** The last type includes the previous two – why?
 - In fact the principal type of `id` is `id :: b -> b` – why?

- **Example 1:** What is the type of `map`

```
map f [] = []
map f (x:xs) = f x : map f xs
```

- **Example 2:** What is the type of `filter`

```
filter f [] = []
filter f (x:xs) = if f x then x:filter f xs else filter f xs
```

- **Example 3:** What is the type of `iterate`

```
iterate f 0 x = x
iterate f (n+1) x = f (iterate f n x)
```

When is a Type an Instance of Another Type

- **Recall:** Two facts about expressions containing variables
 - Variables stand for arbitrary elements of a particular type
 - *Instances* of the expression are obtained by substituting expressions for variables
- **Key Idea:** (Parametric) polymorphic types are defined in the same way:
 - Type-expressions may contain type-variables
 - *Instances* of type-expressions are obtained by substituting types for type-variables
- **Example:** `[Int]` is an instance of `[c]` – substitute `Int` for `c`

- **Previously:** The typing of applications of expressions:

- If `exp1` is an expression with type `a -> b`
- And `exp2` is an expression with type `a`
- Then `exp1 exp2` has type `b`

- **Problem:** How does this apply to polymorphic functions?

```
length      :: [c] -> Int
[2,4,5]     :: [Int]
length [2,4,5] :: Int
```

- **Key Idea:** Argument type can be an *instance* of input type

More formally - Unification

OP

- **Monomorphic:** Can a function be applied to an argument?
 - If the function's input type is the same type as its argument

$$\frac{f :: a \rightarrow b \quad x :: a}{f \ x :: b}$$

- **Polymorphically:** Can a function be applied to an argument?
 - If the function's input type is *unifiable* with argument's type

$$\frac{f :: a \rightarrow b \quad x :: c \quad \theta \text{ unifies } a, c}{f \ x : \theta b}$$

where θ maps type variables to types

- **Example:** In the `length` example, set $\theta c = \text{Int}$

- **Past Paper:** Assume f is a function with principle type

$f :: ([a], [b]) \rightarrow \text{Int} \rightarrow [(b, a)]$

Do the following expressions type check? State **Yes** or **No** with a brief reason and, if **Yes**, what is the principal type of the expression?

1. $f (3,3) 2$
2. $f ([], []) 5$
3. $f ([\text{tail}, \text{head}], []) 3$
4. $f ([\text{True}, \text{False}], ['x'])$

- **Polymorphism:**

- Saves on code — one function (algorithm) has many types
- This implements our algorithmic intuition

- **Type Checking:** Expressions and functions have many types including a principle one

- Polymorphic functions are applied to expressions whose type is an instance of the type of the input of the function