## Haskell Starting Out

http://igm.univ-mlv.fr/~vialette/?section=teaching

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### Ready, set, go!





## Ready, set, go!

ghc's interactive mode

```
barbalala: ghci
GHCi, version 7.10.3: http://www.haskell.org/ghc/
:? for help
>>> 1 + 2
3
>>> 3 * 4
12
>>> 5 - 6
-1
>>> 7 / 8
0.875
```





# Ready, set, go! ghc's interactive mode

```
>>> True && True
True
>>> False || True
True
>>> not False
True
>>> not (True && True)
False
>>> :type True
True :: Bool
>>> :type False
False :: Bool
```



# Ready, set, go! ghc's interactive mode

```
>>> 1 == 1
True
>>> 1 == 2
False
>>> 1 /= 2
True
>>> 1 /= 1
False
>>> False && True
False
```



## Ready, set, go! ghc's interactive mode

```
>>> 1 == True
<interactive>:17:1:
   No instance for (Num Bool) arising from the literal '1'
   In the first argument of '(==)', namely '1'
   In the expression: 1 == True
   In an equation for 'it': it = 1 == True
```



ghc's interactive mode

\* is a function that takes two numbers and multiplies them.

```
>>> :type (*)
(*) :: Num a => a -> a -> a
```

As you've seen, we call it by sandwiching it between them. This is what we call an **infix function**.

Most functions that aren't used with numbers are prefix functions.





### Calling functions



Suppose that f is a function that takes two integers as arguments and returns some integer (in haskell f :: Int -> Int -> Int).

Call **f** without parentheses:

**f** 3 4

#### Do not write:





ghc's interactive mode

```
>>> succ 1
>>> :type succ
succ :: Enum a \Rightarrow a \rightarrow a
>>> :type succ 1
succ 1 :: (Enum a, Num a) => a
>>> succ 1.2
2.2
>>> :type succ 1.2
succ 1.2 :: (Enum a, Fractional a) => a
>>> succ False
True
>>> :type succ False
succ False :: Bool
>>> succ True
*** Exception: ghci.Enum.Bool.succ: bad argument
```

ghc's interactive mode

```
>>> min 2 1
>>> :type min
min :: Ord a => a -> a -> a
>>> :type min 2 1
min 2 1 :: (Num a, Ord a) => a
>>> max 2 1
>>> :type max
\max :: Ord a \Rightarrow a \rightarrow a \rightarrow a
>>> :type max 2 1
\max 2 1 :: (Num a, Ord a) \Rightarrow a
```



ghc's interactive mode

Function application has the highest precedence of them all. What that means for us is that these two statements are equivalent.

```
>>> succ 9 + max 5 4 + 1
16
>>> (succ 9) + (max 5 4) + 1
16
```

doubleMe

```
>>> doubleMe x = x + x
>>> :type doubleMe
doubleMe :: Num a => a -> a
>>> doubleMe 3
6
>>> doubleMe 3.0
6.0
>>> doubleMe 9/3
6.0
>>> :type (/)
(/) :: Fractional a => a -> a -> a
```



doubleUs

```
>>> doubleUs x y = 2*x + 2*y
>>> :type doubleUs
doubleUs :: Num a \Rightarrow a \rightarrow a \rightarrow a
>>> doubleUs 4 9
26
>>> doubleUs 2.3 34.2
73.0
>>> doubleUs 28 88 + doubleMe 123
478
>>> doubleUs doubleMe 2 doubleMe 10
<interactive>:11:1:
    No instance for (Num ((a0 \rightarrow a0) \rightarrow a0 \rightarrow a0))
       arising from a use of 'it'
    In a stmt of an interactive GHCi command: print it
>>> doubleUs (doubleMe 2) (doubleMe 10)
```

```
doubleMe x = x + x
doubleUs x y = doubleMe x + doubleMe y
```

This is a very simple example of a common pattern you will see throughout Haskell. Making basic functions that are obviously correct and then combining them into more complex functions





doubleSmallNumber

Write a function that multiplies a number by 2 but only if that number is smaller than or equal to 100 because numbers bigger than 100 are big enough as it is!

```
doubleSmallNumber x = if x > 100 then x else 2*x
```

The difference between Haskell's if statement and if statements in imperative languages is that the else part is **mandatory** in Haskell.





Another thing about the if statement in Haskell is that it is an expression.

An expression is basically a piece of code that returns a value.

5 is an expression because it returns 5, 1+2 is an expression, x+y is an expression because it returns the sum of x and y.

Because the else is **mandatory**, an if statement will always return something and that's why it's an expression.

If we wanted to add one to every number that's produced in our previous function, we could have written its body like this:

doubleSmallNumber' x = (if x > 100 then x else 2\*x) + 1





Note the ' at the end of the function name.

That apostrophe doesn't have any special meaning in Haskell's syntax. It's a valid character to use in a function name.

We usually use ' to either denote a strict version of a function (one that isn't lazy) or a slightly modified version of a function or a variable.

Because ' is a valid character in functions, we can make a function like this:

```
conanO'Brien = "It's a-me, Conan O'Brien!"
```

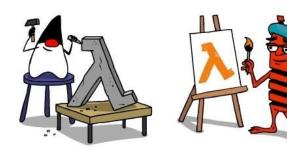








## Functional thinking









```
>>> lostNumbers = [4,8,15,16,23,42]
>>> lostNumbers
[4,8,15,16,23,42]
>>> :type lostNumbers
lostNumbers :: Num t => [t]
>>> [1,2,3,4] ++ [9,10,11,12]
[1,2,3,4,9,10,11,12]
>>> "hello" ++ " " ++ "world"
"hello world"
>>> :type "toto"
"toto" :: [Char]
>>> ['w','o'] ++ ['o','t']
"woot"
```





When you put together two lists (even if you append a singleton list to a list, for instance: [1,2,3] ++ [4]), internally, Haskell has to walk through the whole list on the left side of ++.

That's not a problem when dealing with lists that aren't too big.

However, putting something at the beginning of a list using the : operator (also called the cons operator) is instantaneous:

```
>>> 'A' : " SMALL CAT"
"A SMALL CAT"
>>> 5 : [1,2,3,4,5]
[5,1,2,3,4,5]
```

Notice how: takes a number and a list of numbers or a character and a list of characters, whereas ++ takes two lists.





If you want to get an element out of a list by index, use !!. The indices start at 0.

```
>>> [1,2,3,4,5] !! 0
1
>>> "Hello" !! 1
'e'
>>> [1,2,3,4,5] !! (-1)
*** Exception: ghci.(!!): negative index
>>> [1,2,3,4,5] !! 5
*** Exception: ghci.(!!): index too large
```

You will rarely, if ever, use !!. If you happen to use !!, you should think again.

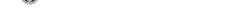




Lists can also contain lists. They can also contain lists that contain lists that contain lists . . .

```
>>> 1 = [[1,2,3],[4,5,6],[7,8,9]]
>>> 1
[[1,2,3],[4,5,6],[7,8,9]]
>>> :type 1
1 :: Num t => [[t]]
>>> 1 ++ [[6,6,6]]
[[1,2,3],[4,5,6],[7,8,9],[6,6,6]]
>>> [0,0,0]:1
[[0,0,0],[1,2,3],[4,5,6],[7,8,9]]
>>> 1 !! 1
[4,5,6]
```







```
>>> 1 : 2 : 3 : 4 : []
[1,2,3,4]
>>> 1 : 2 : 3 : [4]
[1,2,3,4]
>>> 1 : 2 : [3, 4]
[1,2,3,4]
>>> 1 : [2,3, 4]
[1,2,3,4]
>>> [1,2,3,4]
>>> [1,2,3,4]
```



```
>>> 11 = [1,2,3]
>>> 12 = [4,5,6]
>>> 11 : 12
<interactive>:36:1:
    Non type-variable argument in the constraint: Num [t]
    ...
>>> 11 ++ 12
[1,2,3,4,5,6]
```











Lists can be compared if the stuff they contain can be compared.

When using <, <=, > and >= to compare lists, they are compared in lexicographical order. First the heads are compared. If they are equal then the second elements are compared, etc.

```
>>> [3,2,1] > [2,1,0]
True
>>> [3,2,1] > [2,10,100]
True
>>> [3,4,2] > [3,4]
True
>>> [3,4,2] > [2,4]
True
>>> [3,4,2] == [3,4,2]
True
```



Some basic functions that operate on lists

head takes a list and returns its head. The head of a list is basically its first element.

```
>>> :type head
head :: [a] -> a
>>> head "Hello"
'H'
>>> head [1,2,3,4,5]
1
>>> head []
*** Exception: ghci.head: empty list
```





Some basic functions that operate on lists

tail takes a list and returns its tail. In other words, it chops off a list's head.

```
>>> :type tail
tail :: [a] -> [a]
>>> tail "Hello"
"ello"
>>> tail [1,2,3,4,5]
[2,3,4,5]
>>> tail [1]
>>> tail ['a']
11.11
>>> tail []
*** Exception: ghci.tail: empty list
```

Some basic functions that operate on lists

last takes a list and returns its last element.

```
>>> :type last
last :: [a] -> a
>>> last "Hello"
'o'
>>> last [1,2,3,4,5]
5
>>> last []
*** Exception: ghci.last: empty list
```





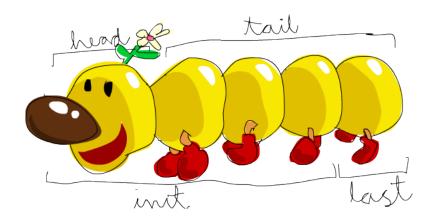
Some basic functions that operate on lists

init takes a list and returns everything except its last element.

```
>>> :type init
init :: [a] -> [a]
>>> init "Hello"
"Hell"
>>> init [1,2,3,4,5]
[1,2,3,4]
>>> init [1]
[]
>>> init []
*** Exception: ghci.init: empty list
```











Some basic functions that operate on lists

length takes a list and returns its length, obviously.

```
>>> :type length
length :: Foldable t => t a -> Int
>>> length "Hello"
5
>>> length [1,2,3,4,5]
5
>>> length []
```





Some basic functions that operate on lists

null checks if a list is empty. If it is, it returns True, otherwise it returns False.

Use this function instead of xs == [] (if you have a list called xs)

```
>>> :type null
null :: Foldable t => t a -> Bool
>>> null "hello"
False
>>> null [1,2,3,4,5]
False
>>> null []
True
```

Some basic functions that operate on lists

reverse reverses a list.

```
>>> :type reverse
reverse :: [a] -> [a]
>>> reverse "hello"
"olleh"
>>> reverse [1,2,3,4,5]
[5,4,3,2,1]
>>> reverse []
[]
>>> "abcd" == reverse (reverse "abcd")
True
```



Some basic functions that operate on lists

take takes a number and a list. It extracts that many elements from the beginning of the list.

```
>>> :type take
take :: Int -> [a] -> [a]
>>> take 0 [1,2]
>>> take 1 [1,2]
[1]
>>> take 2 [1,2]
[1,2]
>>> take 3 [1,2]
[1,2]
>>> take 0 []
П
>>> take 1 []
```





Some basic functions that operate on lists

drop works in a similar way, only it drops the number of elements from the beginning of a list.

```
>>> :type drop
drop :: Int -> [a] -> [a]
>>> drop 0 [1,2,3]
[1,2,3]
>>> drop 1 [1,2,3]
[2,3]
>>> drop 2 [1,2,3]
[3]
>>> drop 3 [1,2,3]
П
>>> drop 4 [1,2,3]
```

Some basic functions that operate on lists

maximum :: (Foldable t, Ord a) => t a -> a takes a list of stuff that can be put in some kind of order and returns the biggest element. minimum :: (Foldable t, Ord a) => t a -> a returns the smallest.

```
>>> :type minimum
minimum :: (Ord a, Foldable t) => t a -> a
>>> minimum [3,4,2,5,1,6,9,8,7]
>>> :type maximum
maximum :: (Ord a, Foldable t) => t a -> a
>>>  maximum [3,4,2,5,1,6,9,8,7]
9
>>> minimum []
*** Exception: ghci.minimum: empty list
>>> maximum 🞵
*** Exception: ghci.maximum: empty list
```



Some basic functions that operate on lists sum takes a list of numbers and returns their sum.

product takes a list of numbers and returns their product.

```
>>> :type sum
sum :: (Num a, Foldable t) => t a -> a
>>> sum []
>>> sum [1,2,3,4,5]
15
>>> :type product
product :: (Num a, Foldable t) => t a -> a
>>> product []
>>> product [1,2,3,4,5]
120
>>> fact n = product [1..n]
>>> fact 5
```



Some basic functions that operate on lists

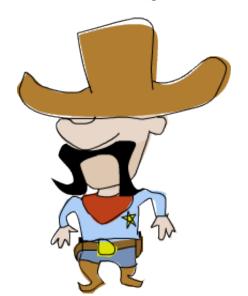
elem takes a thing and a list of things and tells us if that thing is an element of the list.

It's usually called as an infix function because it's easier to read that way.

```
>>> :type elem
elem :: (Eq a, Foldable t) => a -> t a -> Bool
>>> 3 `elem` [2,1,3,5,4]
True
>>> elem 3 [2,1,3,5,4]
True
>>> 6 `elem` [2,1,3,5,4]
False
>>> elem 6 [2,1,3,5,4]
False
```











```
>>> [1,2,3,4,5,6,7,8,9,10]
[1,2,3,4,5,6,7,8,9,10]
>>> [1..10]
[1,2,3,4,5,6,7,8,9,10]
>>> [10..1]
П
>>> [1.0..10.0] -- don't do this!
[1.0,2.0,3.0,4.0,5.0,6.0,7.0,8.0,9.0,10.0]
>>> ['a'..'z']
"abcdefghijklmnopqrstuvwxyz"
>>> ['A'..'Z']
"ABCDEFGHIJKLMNOPQRSTUVWXYZ"
```



Ranges are cool because you can also specify a step.

```
>>> [10,13..20]
[10,13,16,19]
>>> ['a','e'..'z']
"aeimquy"
>>> [1,2,4,8,16..100] -- expecting the powers of 2 !
<interactive>:181:12: parse error on input '...''
>>> [20,18..5]
[20,18,16,14,12,10,8,6]
```





Do not use floating point numbers in ranges!







You can also use ranges to make infinite lists by just not specifying an upper limit.

Because Haskell is lazy, it won't try to evaluate the infinite list immediately.

```
>>> l = [1..]

>>> :type l

l :: (Num t, Enum t) => [t]

>>> take 10 l

[1,2,3,4,5,6,7,8,9,10]

>>> l -- don't do this

[1,2,3,4,5,6,7,8,9,10,11,12,13,14,15,16,17,18,19,20,

21,22,23,24,25,26,27,28,29,30,31,32,33,34,35,36,37,

38,39,40,41,42,43,44,45,46,47,48,49,50,51,52,53,54,

55,56,57,58,59,60,61,62,63,...
```







A basic comprehension for a set that contains the first ten even natural numbers is

$$\{2x \mid x \in \mathbb{N}, x \le 10\}$$

#### In Hashell





```
>>> [x*2 | x <- [1..10], x*2 >= 12]
[12,14,16,18,20]
>>> [x \mid x \leftarrow [50..100], x \mod 7 == 3]
[52.59.66.73.80.87.94]
ghci| ab xs = [if x<10 then "a" else "b" |</pre>
ghci
                  x <- xs. odd xl
ghci| :} -- terminates multiline-input mode
>>> ab [7..13]
["a"."a"."b"."b"]
>>> [ x \mid x \leftarrow [10..20], x \neq 13, x \neq 15, x \neq 19]
[10.11.12.14.16.17.18.20]
```



```
>>> [x+y | x <- [1,2,3], y <- [100,200,300]]
[101,201,301,102,202,302,103,203,303]
>>> [x+y | x <- [1,2,3], y <- [100,200,300], x+y > 200]
[201,301,202,302,203,303]
>>> :{
ghci| [x+y | x <- [1,2,3], y <- [100,200,300],
ghci| x+y > 200, x+y < 300]
ghci| :}
[201,202,203]
```



```
>>> length' xs = sum [1 | _ <- xs]
>>> length' []
>>> length' [1..100]
100
>>> :{
ghci| removeNonUppercase cs = [c | c <- cs,</pre>
                                     c `elem` ['A'..'Z']]
ghci
ghci| :}
>>> removeNonUppercase "Hahaha! Ahahaha!"
"HA"
>>> removeNonUppercase "IdontLIKEFROGS"
"TLTKEFROGS"
```





Nested list comprehensions are also possible if you're operating on lists that contain lists.

```
>>> xss = [[1,2,3],[4,5],[6,7,8,9,10]]
>>> [[x | x <- xs, even x] | xs <- xss]
[[2],[4],[6,8,10]]
>>> [[x | x <- xs, even x] | xs <- xss, length' xs > 2]
[[2],[6,8,10]]
>>> map (filter even) xss
[[2],[4],[6,8,10]]
>>> map (filter even) $ filter (\xs -> length xs > 2) xss
[[2],[6,8,10]]
```



```
>>> fibs = 0 : 1 : [a+b | (a, b) <- zip fibs (tail fibs)]
>>> :type fibs
fibs :: Num b => [b]
>>> take 0 fibs
[]
>>> take 10 fibs
[0,1,1,2,3,5,8,13,21,34]
```

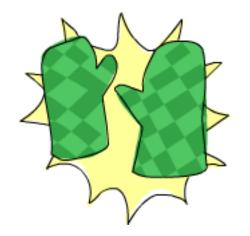
















In some ways, tuples are like lists – they are a way to store several values into a single value.

However, there are a few fundamental differences. A list of numbers is a list of numbers. That's its type and it doesn't matter if it has only one number in it or an infinite amount of numbers. Tuples, however, are used when you know exactly how many values you want to combine and its type depends on how many components it has and the types of the components.

They are denoted with parentheses and their components are separated by commas.

Another key difference is that they don't have to be homogenous. Unlike a list, a tuple can contain a combination of several types.









Two useful functions that operate on pairs

```
>>> fst ('a', 2)
'a'
>>> snd ('a', 2)
>>> fst ('a', 2, "hello")
<interactive>:80:5:
    Couldn't match expected type ...
>>> third (_, _, z) = z
>>> third (1, 'a', "bc")
"bc"
```



Two useful functions that operate on pairs

```
>>> :type fst
fst :: (a, b) -> a
>>> :type snd
snd :: (a, b) -> b
>>> fst (('a', 'b'),('c', 'd'))
('a','b')
>>> fst (('a', 'b', 'c'),('d', 'e', 'f'))
('a','b','c')
>>> fst (('a', 'b', 'c'),('d', 'e', 'f', 'g'))
('a','b','c')
```





zip







zip

```
>>> :type zip
zip :: [a] -> [b] -> [(a, b)]
>>> zip [1,2,3,4] ['a','b','c','d']
[(1, 'a'), (2, 'b'), (3, 'c'), (4, 'd')]
>>> zip [1,2,3,4,5] ['a','b','c','d']
[(1, 'a'), (2, 'b'), (3, 'c'), (4, 'd')]
>>> zip [1,2,3,4] ['a','b','c','d','e']
[(1, 'a'), (2, 'b'), (3, 'c'), (4, 'd')]
>>> zip [1,2,3,4] ['a'..]
[(1, 'a'), (2, 'b'), (3, 'c'), (4, 'd')]
>>> zip [1..] ['a','b','c','d']
[(1, 'a'), (2, 'b'), (3, 'c'), (4, 'd')]
>>> zip [1..] ["apple", "orange", "cherry", "mango"]
[(1, "apple"), (2, "orange"), (3, "cherry"), (4, "mango")]
```

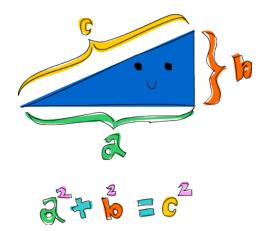
zipWith

```
>>> :type zipWith
zipWith :: (a -> b -> c) -> [a] -> [b] -> [c]
>>> zipWith (+) [0..5] [1,1..]
[1,2,3,4,5,6]
>>> rfibs = 0 : 1 : zipWith (+) rfibs (tail rfibs)
>>> take 10 rfibs
[0,1,1,2,3,5,8,13,21,34]
```



# Right triangle

Which right triangle that has integers for all sides and all sides equal to or smaller than 10 has a perimeter of 24?







# Right triangle

```
\Rightarrow ts = [(a,b,c) | a <- [1..10], b <- [1..10], c <- [1..10]]
>>> length ts
1000
>>> take 5 ts
[(1,1,1),(1,1,2),(1,1,3),(1,1,4),(1,1,5)]
>>> rts = [(a,b,c) | (a,b,c) \leftarrow ts, a^2 + b^2 == c^2]
>>> rt.s
[(3,4,5),(4,3,5),(6,8,10),(8,6,10)]
>>> rts' = [(a,b,c) | (a,b,c) \leftarrow ts, a^2 + b^2 == c^2
                      a+b+c == 241
>>> rts'
[(6.8.10), (8.6.10)]
```





#### Done!

# ABSTRACTION NO SIDE EFFECTS LAZY STRONG-TYPED MINIMISES BUGS ELEGANCE



