## CSCE 314 Programming Languages

Haskell: Declaring Types and Classes

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## Outline

- Declaring Data Types


## - Class and Instance Declarations

## Defining New Types

Three constructs for defining types:

1. data - Define a new algebraic data type from scratch, describing its constructors
2.type - Define a synonym for an existing type (like typedef in C )
2. newtype - A restricted form of data that is more efficient when it fits (if the type has exactly one constructor with exactly one field inside it). Used for defining "wrapper" types

## Data Declarations

A completely new type can be defined by specifying its values using a data declaration.

$$
\text { data Bool = Fa1se | True } \quad \begin{aligned}
& \text { Bool is a new type, with two } \\
& \text { new values False and True. }
\end{aligned}
$$

- The two values False and True are called the constructors for the data type Bool.
- Type and constructor names must begin with an uppercase letter.
- Data declarations are similar to context free grammars. The former specifies the values of a type, the latter the sentences of a language.
More examples from standard Prelude:

$$
\begin{aligned}
& \text { data }()=() \text {-- unit datatype } \\
& \text { data Char }=\ldots . \text { | 'a' | 'b' | ... }
\end{aligned}
$$

Values of new types can be used in the same ways as those of built in types. For example, given
data Answer = Yes | No | Unknown
we can define:

$$
\begin{array}{ll}
\text { answers } & :: \text { [Answer] } \\
\text { answers } & =\text { [Yes,No,Yes, Unknown] } \\
& :: \text { Answer -> Answer } \\
\text { flip } & =\text { No } \\
\text { flip Yes } & =\text { Yes } \\
\text { flip No } & =\text { Unknown } \\
\text { flip Unknown } & =\text { Under }
\end{array}
$$

Constructors construct values, or serve as patterns

## Another example:

data Weekday $=$ Mon | Tue | Wed | Thu | Fri | Sat | Sun

Constructors construct values, or serve as patterns

```
next :: Weekday -> Weekday
next Mon = Tue
next Tue = Wed
next Wed = Thu
next Thu = Fri
next Fri = Sat
next Sat = Sun
next Sun = Mon
workDay :: Weekday -> Boo1
workDay Sat = False
workDay Sun = False
workDay _ = True
```


## Constructors with Arguments

The constructors in a data declaration can also have parameters. For example, given

## data Shape = Circle Float | Rect Float Float

we can define:

| square |  | $::$ Float $\rightarrow$ Shape |
| :--- | :--- | :--- |
| square $n$ |  | $=$ Rect $n \mathrm{n}$ |
| area | $:$ | Shape $\rightarrow$ Float |
| area (Circle r) | $=p i * r \wedge 2$ |  |
| area (Rect $x$ | $y)$ | $=x * y$ |

- Shape has values of the form Circle $r$ where $r$ is a float, and Rect x y where x and y are floats.
- Circle and Rect can be viewed as functions that construct values of type Shape:

$$
\begin{aligned}
& \text { Circle }:: \text { Float } \rightarrow \text { Shape } \\
& \text { Rect }:: \text { Float } \rightarrow \text { Float } \rightarrow \text { Shape } \\
& \hline
\end{aligned}
$$

## Another example:

```
data Person = Person Name Gender Age
type Name = String
data Gender = Male | Female
type Age = Int
```

With just one constructor in a data type, often constructor is named the same as the type (cf. Person). Now we can do:

$$
\begin{aligned}
& \text { let } x=\text { Person "Jerry" Female } 12 \\
& y=\text { Person "Tom" Male } 12 \\
& \text { in ... }
\end{aligned}
$$

Quiz: What are the types of the constructors Male and Person?

Ma1e :: Gender
Person :: Name -> Gender -> Age -> Person

## Pattern Matching

$$
\begin{aligned}
& \text { name }\left(\text { Person } n_{-}\right)=n \\
& \text { oldMan (Person _ Male a) } \mid \text { a }>100=\text { True } \\
& \text { oldMan }\left(P e r s o n_{\ldots} \text { ) }=\right.\text { False }
\end{aligned}
$$

$$
\text { > 1et yoda = Person "Yoda" Ma1e } 999
$$

in oldMan yoda

True

| $\mathrm{n}=\mathrm{m}=\mathrm{p}$
| otherwise = findPrsn $n$ ps
> findPrsn "Tom"
[Person "Yoda" Male 999, Person "Tom" Male 7]
Person "Tom" Male 7

## Parameterized Data Declarations

Not surprisingly, data declarations themselves can also have parameters. For example, given

$$
\text { data Pair } a \operatorname{b}=\text { Pair } a b
$$

we can define:
$x=$ Pair 12
y = Pair "Howdy" 42
first :: Pair a b -> a
first (Pair x _) = x
apply :: (a->a') -> (b->b') -> Pair a b -> Pair a' b' apply $f$ g (Pair $x$ y) $=\operatorname{Pair}(f x)(g y)$

Another example:
Maybe type holds a value (of any type) or holds nothing
data Maybe $a=$ Nothing | Just $a$
a is a type parameter, can be bound to any type
Just True :: Maybe Bool
Just "x" :: Maybe [Char]
Nothing :: Maybe a
we can define:

> safediv $\quad::$ Int $\rightarrow$ Int $\rightarrow$ Maybe Int
> safediv $-0=$ Nothing
> safediv $m$ n $=$ Just $(\mathrm{m}$ `div` n$)$
safehead :: [a] $\rightarrow$ Maybe a
safehead [] = Nothing
safehead xs = Just (head xs)

## Type Declarations

A new name for an existing type can be defined using a type declaration.
type String = [Char]
String is a synonym for the type [Char].

Type declarations can be used to make other types easier to read. For example, given
type Pos = (Int,Int)
we can define:

| origin $:$ <br> origin $=$ <br> left $:$ <br> lefos Pos $\rightarrow$ Pos <br> left $(x, y)$ $=$ $\mathrm{(x-1,y)}$ |
| :--- | :--- |

Like function definitions, type declarations can also have parameters. For example, given

$$
\text { type Pair } a=(a, a)
$$

we can define:

$$
\begin{array}{ll}
\text { mult } & :: \text { Pair Int }->\text { Int } \\
\text { mult }(m, n) & =m * n \\
& \\
\text { copy } & :: \text { a -> Pair a } \\
\text { copy } x & =(x, x)
\end{array}
$$

## Type declarations can be nested:

$$
\begin{aligned}
& \text { type Pos }=\text { (Int,Int) } \\
& \text { type Trans }=\text { Pos -> Pos }
\end{aligned}
$$

However, they cannot be recursive:
type Tree = (Int, [Tree])

## Recursive Data Types

New types can be declared in terms of themselves. That is, data types can be recursive.
data Nat = Zero | Succ Nat

Nat is a new type, with constructors Zero :: Nat and Succ :: Nat -> Nat.

A value of type Nat is either Zero, or of the form Succ $n$ where n :: Nat. That is, Nat contains the following infinite sequence of values: Zero

Succ Zero Succ (Succ Zero)

Example function: add : : Nat -> Nat -> Nat add Zero $\mathrm{n}=\mathrm{n}$ add (Succ $m$ ) $n=$ Succ (add $m n$ )

## Parameterized Recursive Data Types - Lists

data List $a=N i 1$ | Cons $a(L i s t ~ a)$
sum :: List Int -> Int
sum $\mathrm{Ni} 1=0$
sum (Cons x xs) $=\mathrm{x}+$ sum xs
$>$ sum Ni 1
0
> sum (Cons 1 (Cons 2 (Cons 2 Ni1)))
5

## Trees

A binary Tree is either Tnil, or a Node with a value of type a and two subtrees (of type Tree a)

```
data Tree a = Tni1 | Node a (Tree a) (Tree a)
```

Find an element:

```
treeElem :: (a -> Bool) -> Tree a -> Maybe a
treeElem p Tnil = Nothing
treeElem p t@(Node v left right)
    | p v = Just v
    | otherwise = treeElem p left `combine` treeElem p right
    where combine (Just v) r = Just v
        combine Nothing r = r
```

Compute the depth:

| depth Tni1 | $=0$ |
| :--- | :--- |
| depth (Node - left right) | $=1+$ |
| (max (depth left) (depth right)) |  |

## Arithmetic Expressions

Consider a simple form of expressions built up from integers using addition and multiplication.


Using recursion, a suitable new type to represent such expressions can be declared by:

data Expr = Val Int<br>| Add Expr Expr<br>| Mul Expr Expr

For example, the expression on the previous slide would be represented as follows:

Add (Va1 1) (Mul (Va1 2) (Va1 3))

Using recursion, it is now easy to define functions that process expressions. For example:

$$
\begin{aligned}
& \text { size } \quad:: \text { Expr } \rightarrow \text { Int } \\
& \text { size (Val n) = } 1 \\
& \text { size (Add } x \text { y) }=\text { size } x+\text { size } y \\
& \text { size (Mul x y) = size } x+\operatorname{size} y \\
& \text { eval : : Expr } \rightarrow \text { Int } \\
& \text { eval (Val n) }=n \\
& \text { eval (Add } x \text { y) }=e v a 1 x+e v a l y \\
& \text { eval (Mul } x \text { y) }=\text { eval } x \text { * eval } y
\end{aligned}
$$

## Note:

- The three constructors have types:

$$
\begin{aligned}
& \text { Val }:: \text { Int } \rightarrow \text { Expr } \\
& \text { Add }:: \text { Expr } \rightarrow \text { Expr } \rightarrow \text { Expr } \\
& \text { Mu1 }:: \text { Expr } \rightarrow \text { Expr } \rightarrow \text { Expr }
\end{aligned}
$$

- Many functions on expressions can be defined by replacing the constructors by other functions using a suitable fold function. For example:

```
fold :: (Int->Int)->(Int->Int->Int)->
    (Int->Int->Int)->Expr->Int
fold f g h (Val n) = f n
fold f g h (Add a b) = g (fold f g h a) (fold f g h b)
fold f g h (Mul a b) = h (fold f g h a) (fold f g h b)
eval = fold id (+) (*)
```


## About Folds

A fold operation for Trees:

```
treeFold : : t -> (a -> t -> t -> t) -> Tree a -> t
treeFold f g Tnil = f
treeFold f g (Node x 1 r)
    \(=g \times\) (treeFold \(f \mathrm{~g}\) 1) (treeFold f g r )
```

How? Replace all Tnil constructors with f, all Node constructors with g. Examples:

```
> let tt = Node 1 (Node 2 Tni1 Tni1)
(Node 3 Tnil (Node 4 Tnil Tnil))
> treeFold 1 (\x y z -> 1 + max y z) tt
4
> treeFold 1 (\x y z -> x * y * z) tt
24
> treeFold 0 (\x y z -> x + y + z) tt
10
```


## Exercise 1

```
treeFold :: t -> (a -> t -> t -> t) -> Tree a -> t
treeFold f g Tnil = f
treeFold f g (Node x 1 r)
        =g x (treeFold f g 1) (treeFold f g r)
```

> 1et tt $=$ Node 1 (Node 2 Tnil Tnil)
(Node 3 Tnil (Node 4 Tnil Tni1))
> treeFold 1 ( $\backslash x$ y $z$-> $1+\max y z) ~ t t$
4

Exercise 2

```
treeFold :: t -> (a -> t -> t -> t) -> Tree a -> t
treeFold f g Tnil = f
treeFold f g (Node x 1 r)
    = g x (treeFold f g 1) (treeFold f g r)
```

> 1et tt $=$ Node 1 (Node 2 Tnil Tnil)
(Node 3 Tnil (Node 4 Tnil Tni1))
$>$ treeFold 1 ( $\backslash x$ y $z$-> $x$ * $y$ * $z$ ) tt
24

## Deriving

- Experimenting with the above definitions will give you many errors
- Data types come with no functionality by default, you cannot, e.g., compare for equality, print (show) values etc.
- Real definition of Bool
data Bool = False | True deriving (Eq, Ord, Enum, Read, Show, Bounded)
- A few standard type classes can be listed in a deriving clause
- Implementations for the necessary functions to make a data type an instance of those classes are generated by the compiler
- deriving can be considered a shortcut, we will discuss the general mechanism later


## Exercises

(1) Using recursion and the function add, define a function that multiplies two natural numbers.
(2) Define a suitable function fold for expressions, and give a few examples of its use.
(3) A binary tree is complete if the two sub-trees of every node are of equal size. Define a function that decides if a binary tree is complete.

## Outline

## I Declaring Data Types

## I Class and Instance Declarations

## Type Classes

- A new class can be declared using the class construct
- Type classes are classes of types, thus not types themselves
- Example:
class Eq a where

$$
\begin{aligned}
& (==),(/=):: \text { a -> a -> Bool } \\
& -- \text { Minimal complete definition: (==) and (/=) } \\
& x /=y \quad=\text { not }(x==y) \\
& x==y \quad=\operatorname{not}(x /=y)
\end{aligned}
$$

- For a type a to be an instance of the class Eq, it must support equality and inequality operators of the specified types
- Definitions are given in an instance declaration
- A class can specify default definitions


## Instance Declarations

class Eq a where

$$
\begin{aligned}
& (==),(/=):: a->a->\text { Boo } 1 \\
& x /=y=\operatorname{not}(x==y) \\
& x=y=n=\operatorname{not}(x /=y)
\end{aligned}
$$

Let us make Bool be a member of Eq
instance Eq Bool where

$$
\begin{array}{ll}
(==) \text { False False } & =\text { True } \\
\text { (==) True True } & =\text { True } \\
(==) \quad- & =\text { False }
\end{array}
$$

- Due to the default definition, (/=) need not be defined
- deriving Eq would generate an equivalent definition


## Showable Weekdays

class Show a where
show :: a -> String

Option 1:
data Weekday $=$ Mon | Tue | Wed | Thu | Fri | Sat | Sun deriving Show
> map show [Mon, Tue, Wed]
["Mon", "Tue", "Wed"]

Option 2:
data Weekday $=$ Mon | Tue | Wed | Thu | Fri | Sat | Sun instance Show Weekday where
show Mon = "Monday"
show Tue = "Tuesday"
> map show [Mon, Tue, Wed]
["Monday", "Tuesday", "Wednesday"]

## Parameterized Instance Declarations

## Every list is showable if its elements are

instance Show a => Show [a] where
show [] = "[]"
show (x:xs) = "[" ++ show $x$ ++ showRest xs
where showRest [] = "]"
showRest (x:xs) = "," ++ show $x$ ++ showRest xs
Now this works:
> show [Mon, Tue, Wed]
"[Monday,Tuesday,Wednesday]"

## Showable, Readable, and Comparable Weekdays

 data Weekday $=$ Mon | Tue | Wed | Thu | Fri | Sat | Sun deriving (Show, Read, Eq, Ord, Bounded, Enum)*Main> show Wed
"Wed"
*Main> read "Fri" : : Weekday
Fri
*Main> Sat == Sun
False
*Main> Sat == Sat
True
*Main> Mon < Tue
True
*Main> Tue < Tue
False
*Main> Wed `compare` Thu
LT

## Bounded and Enumerable Weekdays

data Weekday $=$ Mon | Tue | Wed | Thu | Fri | Sat | Sun deriving (Show, Read, Eq, Ord, Bounded, Enum)
*Main> minBound :: Weekday
Mon
*Main> maxBound :: Weekday
Sun
*Main> succ Mon
Tue
*Main> pred Fri
Thu
*Main> [Fri .. Sun]
[Fri,Sat,Sun]
*Main> [minBound .. maxBound] :: [Weekday]
[Mon, Tue, Wed, Thu, Fri, Sat, Sun]

