

# CS 320: Concepts of Programming Languages

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## Lecture 07: HO Programming and Type Classes

- Curried Functions
- Folding
- Type Classes

Reading: Hutton Ch. 3 & beginning of 7

You should also look at the Standard Prelude in Appendix B!

# HO Programming: Curried Functions

Recall that **function slices** are created from infix functions/operators by giving one of the operands, and leaving the other out. The missing operand is a parameter – this turns a function of two arguments into a function of one argument:

```
Main> (3^2)
9
```

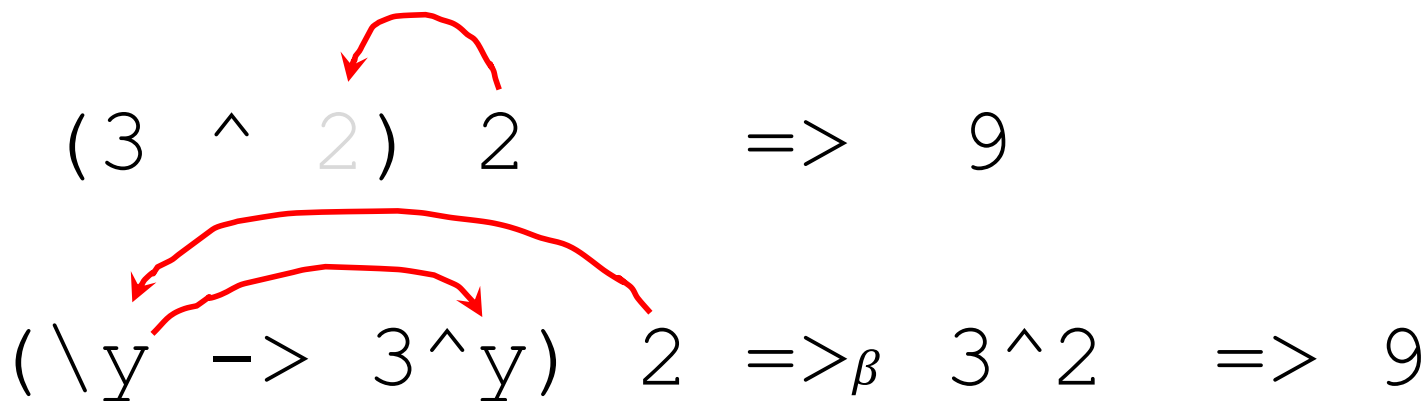
```
Main> (\x -> \y -> x^y) 3 2
9
```

```
Main> (^2) 3
9
```

```
Main> (\x -> x^2) 3
9
```

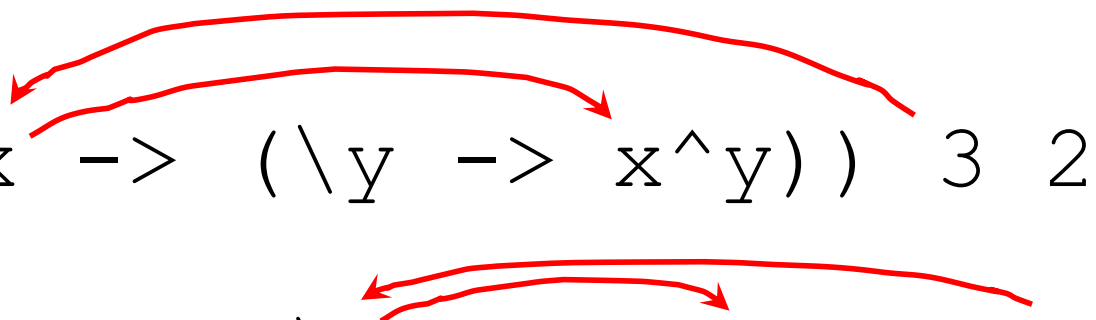
```
Main> (3^) 2
9
```

```
Main> (\y -> 3^y) 2
9
```



# HO Programming: Curried Functions

But notice that what we are doing here is partially applying a function to one of its arguments, and then stopping halfway through and calling it a new function:

$$\begin{aligned} & (\lambda x \rightarrow (\lambda y \rightarrow x^y)) \ 3 \ 2 \\ \Rightarrow_{\beta} & (\lambda y \rightarrow 3^y) \ 2 \\ \Rightarrow_{\beta} & 3^2 \\ \Rightarrow & 9 \end{aligned}$$


# HO Programming: Curried Functions

We can do this any time we want, with any lambda expression with more than one argument:

```
Main> f = (\x -> (\y -> x^y)) 3
```

```
Main> f 2
```

9

By **referential transparency**, this is the same as:

```
Main> (\x -> (\y -> x^y)) 3 2
```

9

except that we “froze” the computation after applying the first argument.

# HO Programming: Curried Functions

This explains why the following are all completely equivalent:

$$f\ x\ y\ z = (x, y, z)$$

$$f\ x\ y = \lambda z \rightarrow (x, y, z)$$

$$f\ x = \lambda y \rightarrow (\lambda z \rightarrow (x, y, z))$$

$$f\ x = \lambda y\ z \rightarrow (x, y, z)$$

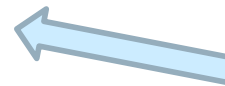
$$f = \lambda x \rightarrow (\lambda y \rightarrow (\lambda z \rightarrow (x, y, z)))$$

$$f = \lambda x\ y\ z \rightarrow (x, y, z)$$

which is proved by the type: **all these will have the same type:**

$$f :: a \rightarrow b \rightarrow c \rightarrow (a, b, c)$$

$$f = \lambda x \rightarrow \lambda y \rightarrow \lambda z \rightarrow (a, b, c)$$



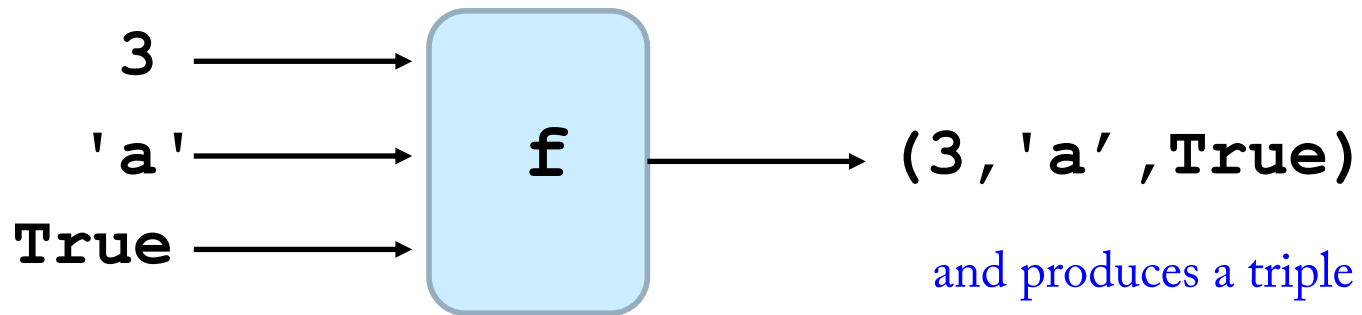
Notice how the type arrows  
line up with the arrows in  
the lambda expression!  
**Not a coincidence!**

# HO Programming: Curried Functions

It also explains why **all functions** can be thought of as unary (one-parameter) functions.

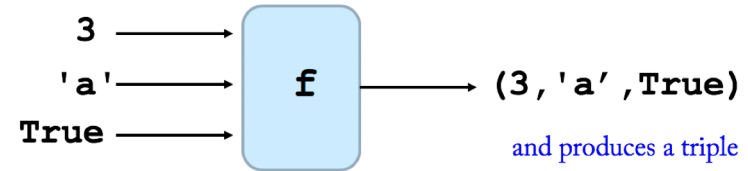
**f x y z = (x, y, z)**

**f** takes three arguments



# HO Programming: Curried Functions

$f$  takes three arguments



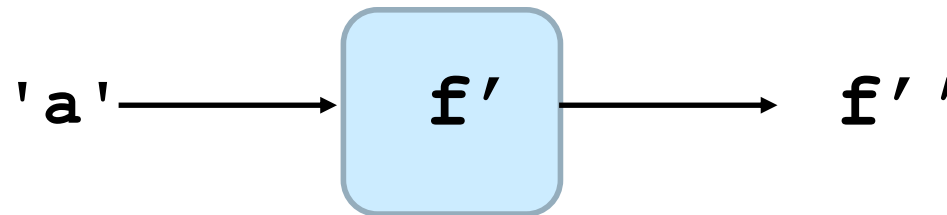
$$f = \lambda x \rightarrow \lambda y \rightarrow \lambda z \rightarrow (x, y, z)$$



$f$  takes one argument and produces a function  $f'$  of two arguments:

$$f\ x = \lambda y \rightarrow \lambda z \rightarrow (x, y, z)$$

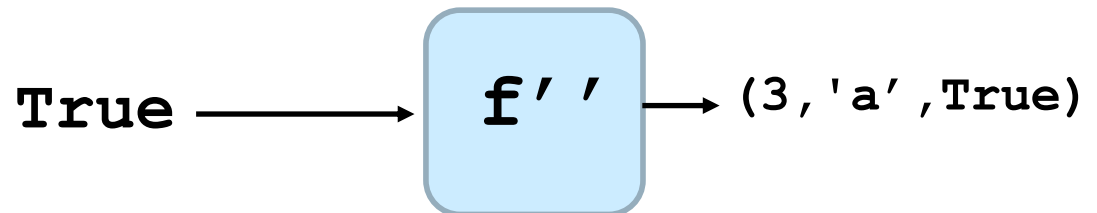
$f'$  takes one argument and produces a function  $f''$  of one argument:



$$f'\ y = \lambda z \rightarrow (3, y, z)$$

$f''$  takes one argument and produces a value:

$$f''\ z = (3, 'a', z)$$



# HO Programming: Curried Functions

This also explains why function application is left-associative and the arrow (in lambda expressions OR in type expressions) is right-associative:

```
f 3 'a' True
```

```
f :: a -> b -> c -> (a,b,c)
```

```
f = \x -> \y -> \z -> ( x,y,z)
```

```
(f 3) 'a' True
```

```
f :: a -> ( b -> c -> (a,b,c) )
```

```
f = \x -> (\y -> \z -> (x,y,z) )
```

```
((f 3) 'a') True
```

```
f :: a -> ( b -> ( c -> (a,b,c) ) )
```

```
f = \x -> (\y -> (\z -> (x,y,z) ) )
```



# HO Programming: Curried Functions

NOTE carefully that these functions DO have the same type:

$$g :: a \rightarrow b \rightarrow c$$
$$h :: a \rightarrow (b \rightarrow c)$$

But these functions do NOT have the same type:

$$g' :: a \rightarrow b \rightarrow c$$
$$h' :: (a \rightarrow b) \rightarrow c$$

# Higher-order Programming Paradigms Reading: Hutton Ch. 7.3

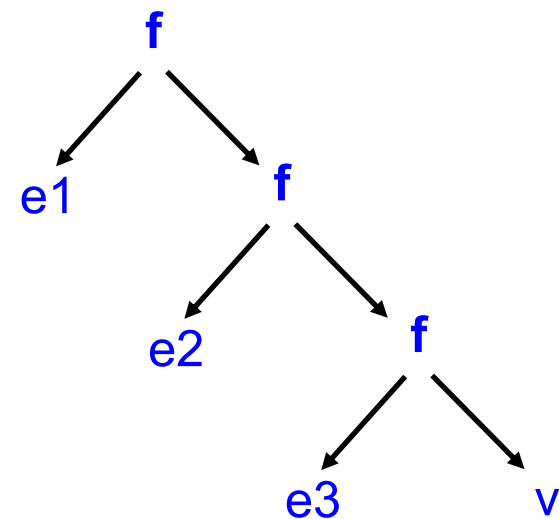
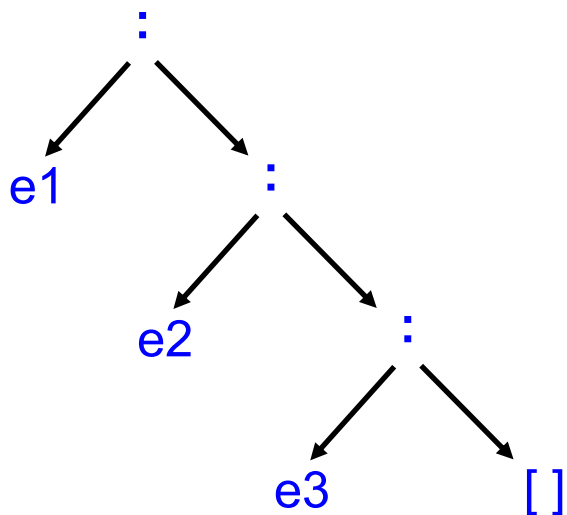
Fold (also called reduce) is another function which uses a function as a parameter. There are two versions `foldr` (fold right) and `foldl` (fold left).

Fold right takes a list (constructed with the cons operator `:`) and effectively replaces the cons with a function of two arguments, and the empty list with an “initial value” to get the recursion started:

`[ e1, e2, e3 ]`

`foldr f v [e1,e2,e3]`

`e1 : ( e2 : e3 : [] )`



# Higher-order Programming Paradigms Reading: Hutton Ch. 7.3

Here is a version of foldr similar to that given in the Prelude:

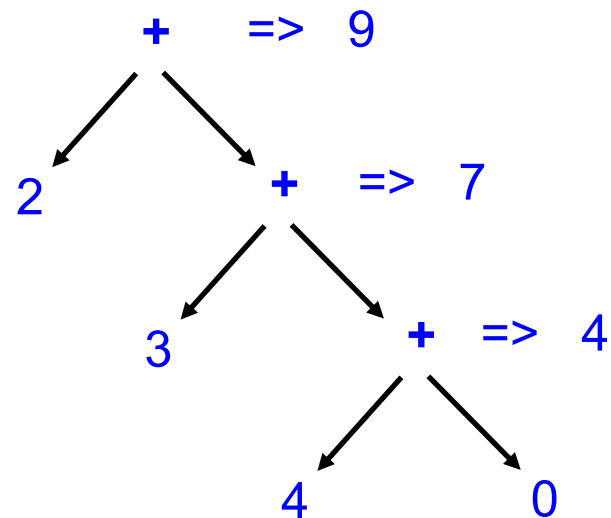
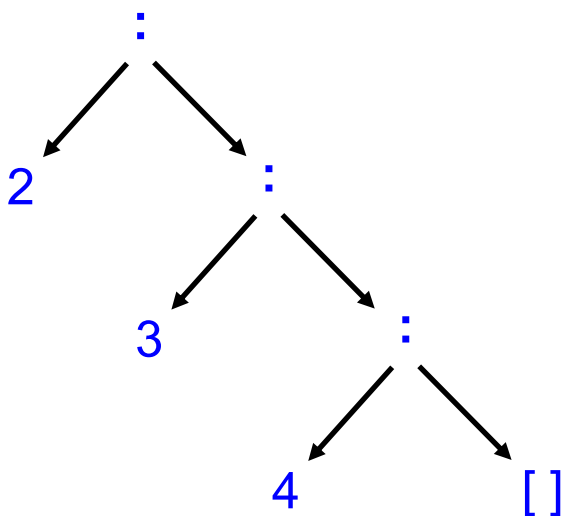
```
foldr :: (a -> b -> b) -> b -> [a] -> b
foldr f v []      = v
foldr f v (x:xs) = f x (foldr f v xs)
```

Thus, to sum the elements of the list, we could write:

**foldr (+) 0 [2,3,4] => 9**

2 : ( 3 : 4 : [] )

2 + ( 3 + 4 + 0 )



# Higher-order Programming Paradigms Reading: Hutton Ch. 7.3

Here are some other applications of `foldr` – it is actually more powerful than you might think at first!

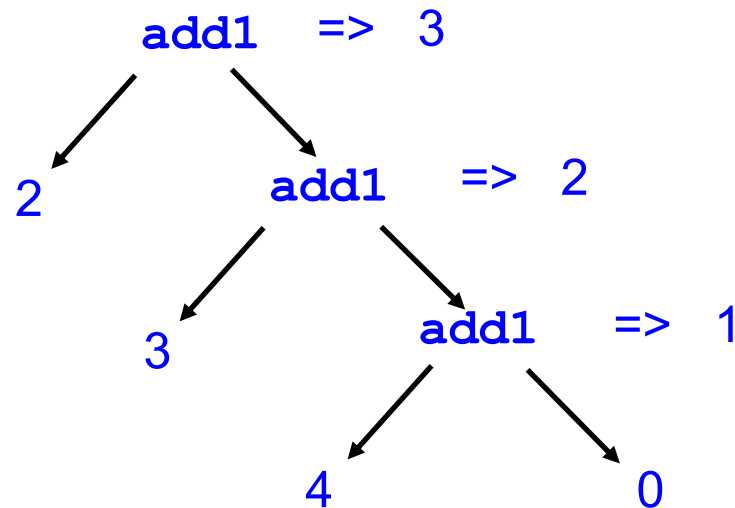
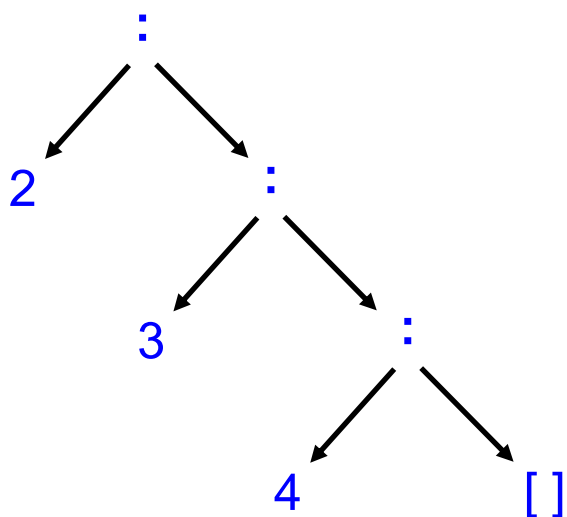
Calculating the length of a list:

```
foldr add1 0 [2,3,4]
```

```
add1 x y = y + 1
```

```
2 : ( 3 : 4 : [] )
```

```
2 `add1` ( 3 `add1` 4 `add1` 0 )
```



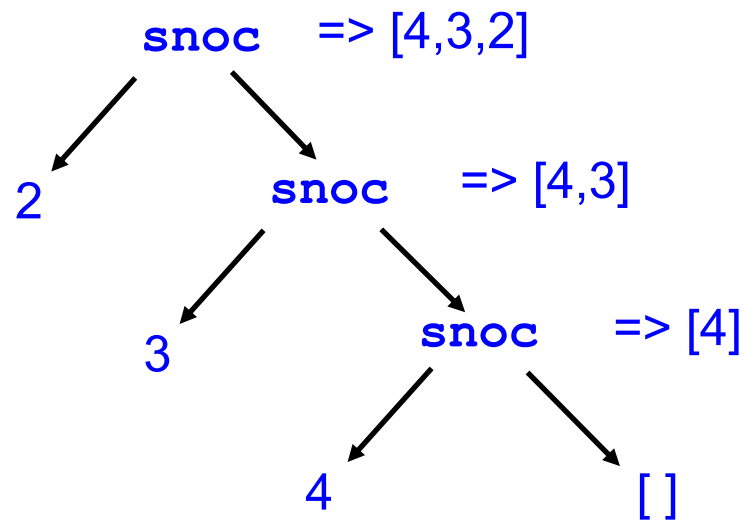
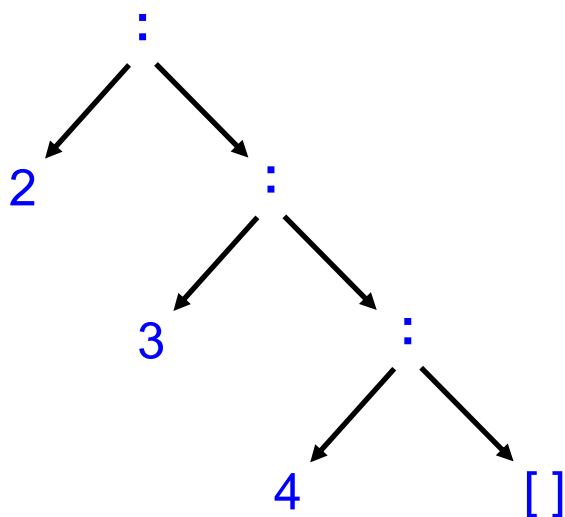
# Higher-order Programming Paradigms Reading: Hutton Ch. 7.3

Here are some other applications of `foldr` – it is actually more powerful than you might think at first!

## Reversing a list:

```
snoc :: a -> [a] -> [a]      -- snoc is “cons” reversed
snoc x xs = xs ++ [x]        -- because it adds to end instead of front
```

**`foldr snoc [] [2,3,4]`**



# Higher-order Programming Paradigms Reading: Hutton Ch. 7.3

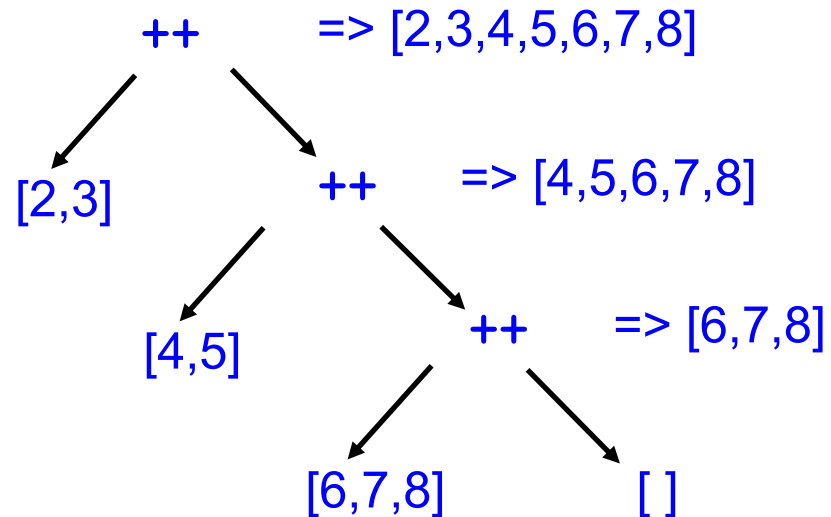
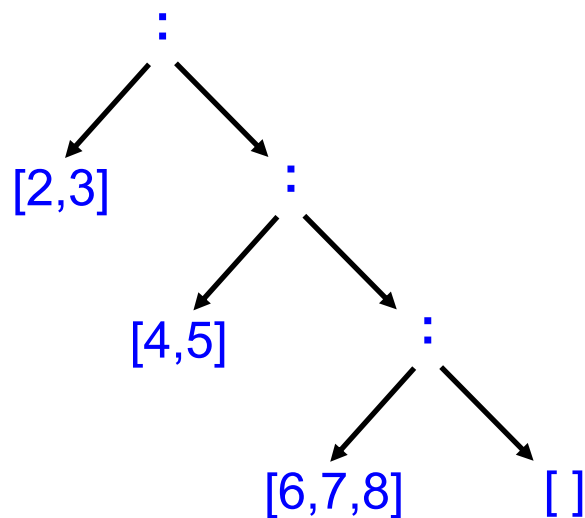
Here is another applications of foldr – it is actually more powerful than you might think at first!

Collapsing a list:

```
foldr (++) [] [ [2,3], [4,5], [6,7,8] ]
```

```
[2,3] : [4,5] : [6,7,8] : []
```

```
[2,3] ++ [4,5] ++ [6,7,8] ++ []
```



```
foldr (++) [] [ "hi ", "there ", "folks!" ] => "hi there folks!"
```

# Type Classes and Overloading

Reading: Hutton Ch. 3.8, 3.9, 8.5

An **overloaded** operator is the same symbol or name, but used for more than one type of argument:

2 + 4    3.4 + 5.6    also    \* - /

"hi" + " there"    (Python)

True == False    3 /= 5    (Haskell)

Note: there is really no difference between an "operator" and "function" – an operator IS a function, but usually is represented infix.

Note that data or other syntax is sometimes overloaded

`hi there!`    "hi there!"    (Python)

34    can be    Int    Integer    Float    Double    (Haskell)

Why do we do this?    Flexibility and convenience and standard math practice!

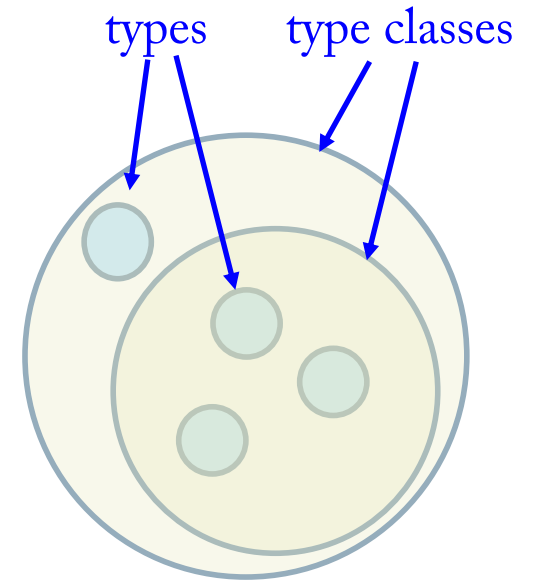
# Type Classes and Overloading

Reading: Hutton Ch. 3.8, 3.9, 8.5  
Hutton Appendix B

Recall: A **type** is a set of related values and its associated operators/functions.

A **type class** is a set of types that share some overloaded operations/functions. In specific:

- The type class is **defined by a set of data objects and the set of shared operators/functions**;
- A type may be a member of multiple type classes;
- A type class may be a subset of another type class



A type class is similar to an interface in Java: it defines what operations you can use with the type.

```
// Queueable Interface

public interface Queueable {
    void enqueue(int n);    // insert at the rear of the queue
    int dequeue();         // Remove and return head of queue
    int peek();            // Return head of queue without removing
    boolean isEmpty();
    int size();            // returns number of integers in queue
}
```

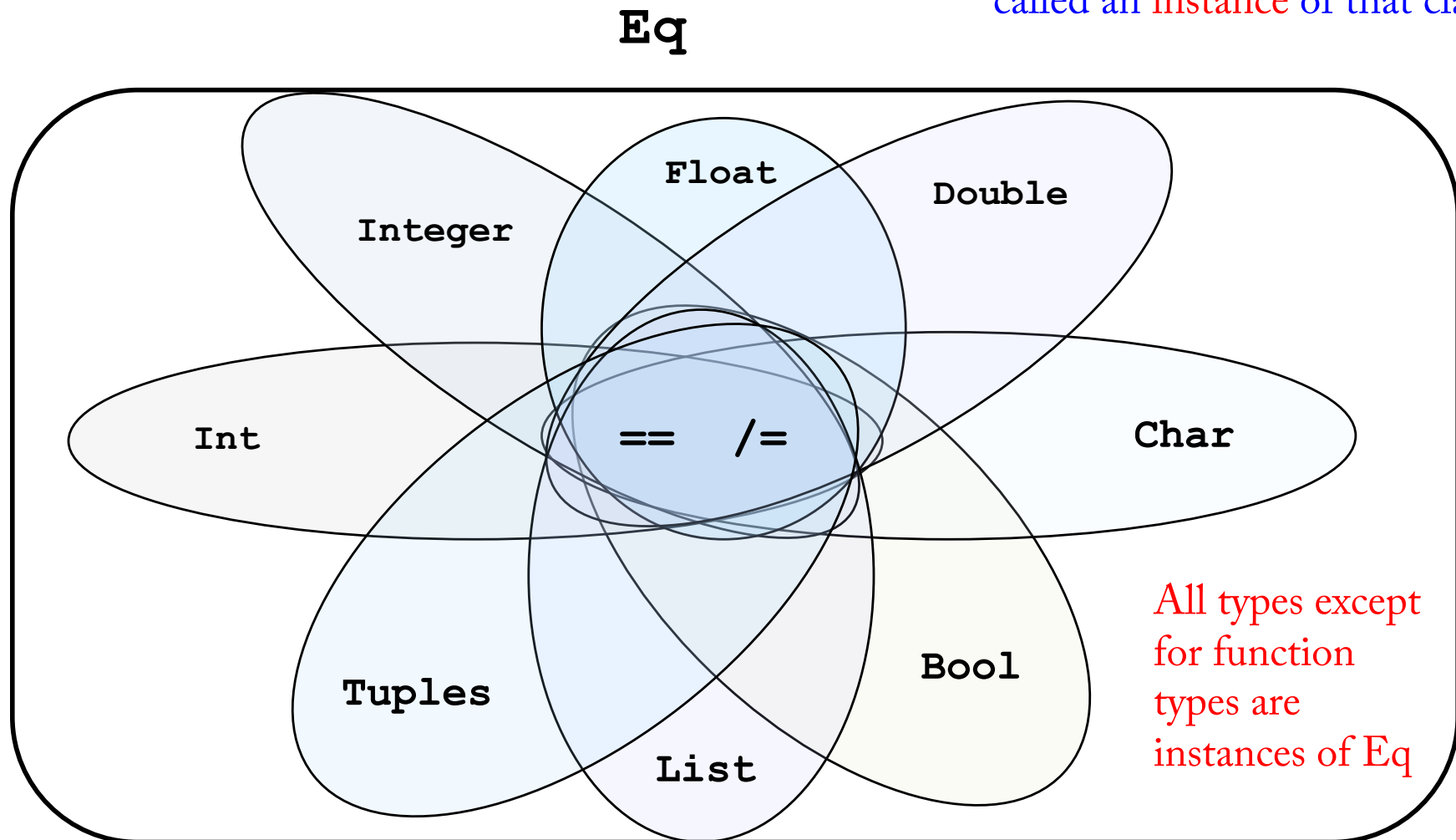


# Type Classes and Overloading

Reading: Hutton Ch. 3.8, 3.9, 8.5

**Example:** The type class **Eq** contains all the Equality Types, those that implement the equality operators:

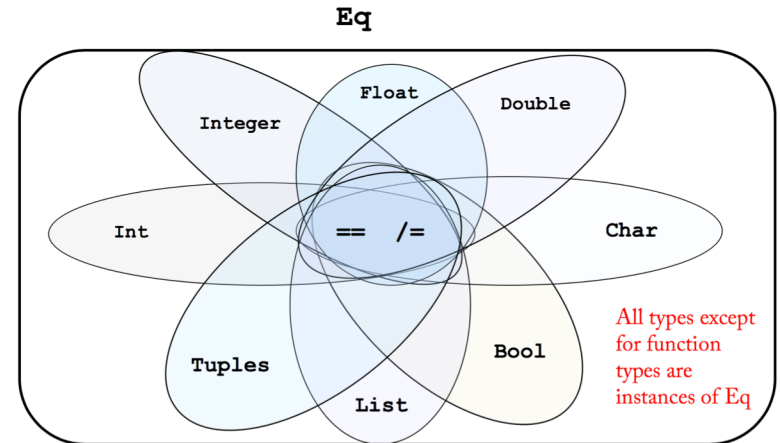
A type contained in a type class is called an **instance** of that class.



# Type Classes and Overloading

Reading: Hutton Ch. 3.8, 3.9, 8.5

```
*Main> 5 == 6
False
*Main> 3.4 == 3.3999999999999999
False
*Main> ('a',(0,["hi","there"])) == ('a',(0,["hi","there"]))
True
*Main> [2,3,4,5] /= [3,2,4,5]
True
*Main> a = 5
*Main> b = 5
*Main> a == b
True
*Main> (+) == (+)
```



<interactive>:176:1: **error:**

- No instance for (Eq (Integer -> Integer -> Integer)) arising from a use of '==' (maybe you haven't applied a function to enough arguments?)
- In the expression: (+) == (+)  
In an equation for 'it': it = (+) == (+)

```
*Main> incr x = x + 1
*Main> :t incr
incr :: Num a => a -> a
*Main> incr == incr
```

<interactive>:179:1: **error:**

- No instance for (Eq (Integer -> Integer)) arising from a use of '==' (maybe you haven't applied a function to enough arguments?)
- In the expression: incr == incr  
In an equation for 'it': it = incr == incr

```
*Main> █
```

Naturally, these operators are polymorphic:

```
*Main> :t (==)
(==) :: Eq a => a -> a -> Bool
*Main> :t (/=)
(/=) :: Eq a => a -> a -> Bool
*Main>
```

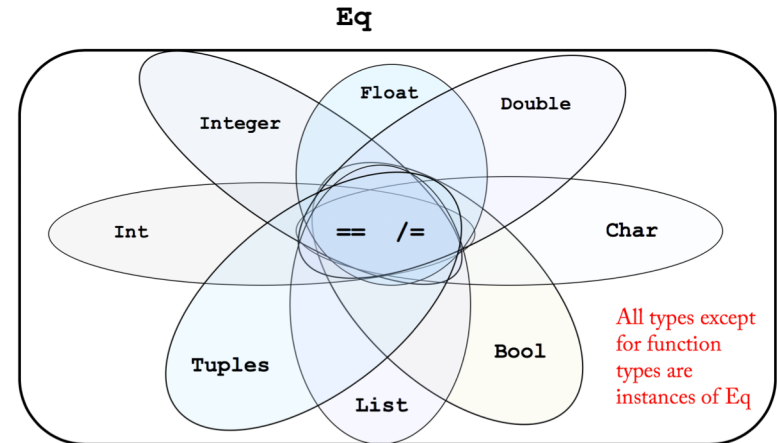
# Type Classes and Overloading

Reading: Hutton Ch. 3.8, 3.9, 8.5

Naturally, these operators are polymorphic:

```
*Main> :t (==)
(==) :: Eq a => a -> a -> Bool
```

```
*Main> :t (/=)
(/=) :: Eq a => a -> a -> Bool
*Main>
```



However, the polymorphism is restricted to types which are instances of Eq:

```
Eq a => a -> a -> Bool
```

class constraint

This says: “For any type **a** which is an instance of **Eq**, the function has type **a -> a -> Bool** ” ; any other type is forbidden.

```
<interactive>:176:1: error:
• No instance for (Eq (Integer -> Integer -> Integer))
  arising from a use of '=='
  (maybe you haven't applied a function to enough arguments?)
```

# Type Classes and Overloading

Reading: Hutton Ch. 3.8, 3.9, 8.5

The type class **Ord** is a superset of **Eq**, and contains those types that can be **totally ordered and compared using the standard relational operators**:

```
(<) :: Ord a => a -> a -> Bool
```

```
(>) :: Ord a => a -> a -> Bool
```

```
(<=) :: Ord a => a -> a -> Bool
```

```
(<=) :: Ord a => a -> a -> Bool
```

```
min :: Ord a => a -> a -> a
```

```
max :: Ord a => a -> a -> a
```

# Type Classes and Overloading

Reading: Hutton Ch. 3.8, 3.9, 8.5

The type class **Eq** is a superset of **Ord**, which contains those types that can be **totally ordered** and compared using the standard relational operators:

Relational tests on tuples and lists is lexicographic:

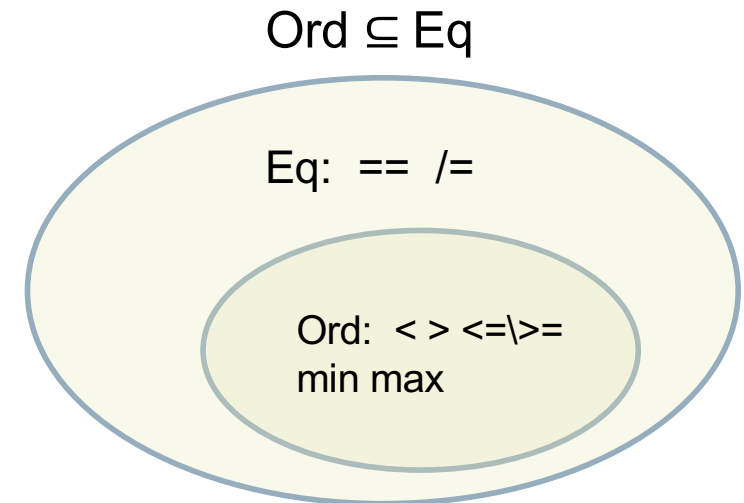
```
[*Main> "abc" < "abd"
True
[*Main> "abc" < "abcd"
True
[*Main> [2,3,4] <= [2,3,6]
True
[*Main> [2,3,4] > [2,3]
True
[*Main> [2,3] < [2,4,5]
True
[*Main> ('a',5) < ('a',7)
True
[*Main> (2,3) < (2,3,4)
```

The ordering on lists and tuples is also recursive:

```
*Main> [ [2,3], [2,4] ] < [ [2,3], [2,5] ]
True
```

<interactive>:202:9: **error:**

- Couldn't match expected type '(Integer, Integer)'  
with actual type '(Integer, Integer, Integer)'
- In the second argument of '<', namely '(2, 3, 4)'  
In the expression: (2, 3) < (2, 3, 4)  
In an equation for 'it': it = (2, 3) < (2, 3, 4)

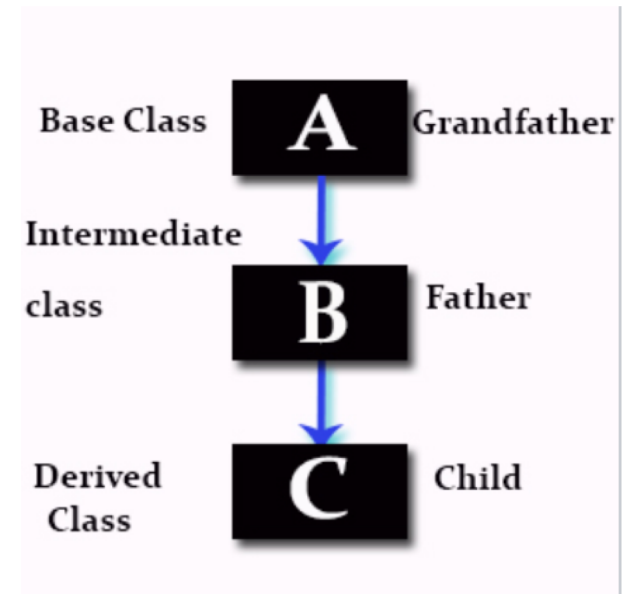
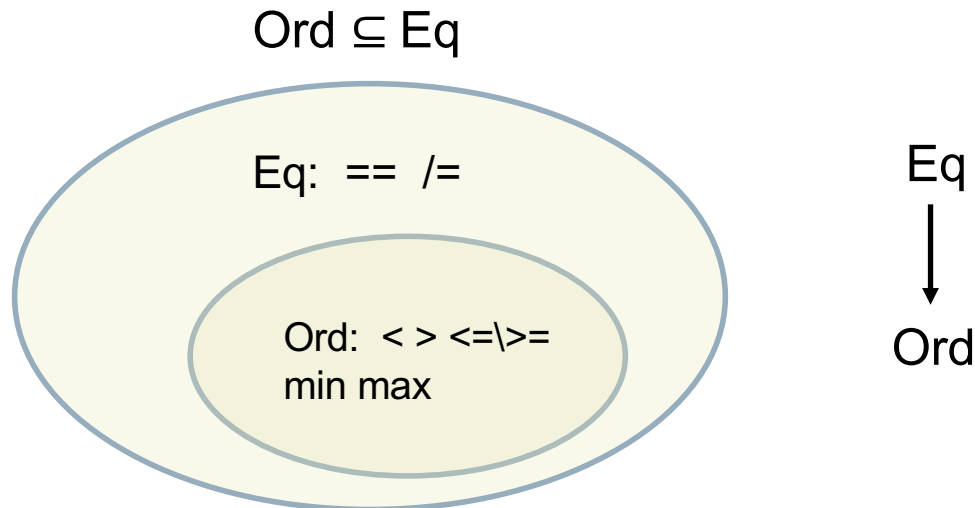


# Type Classes and Overloading

Reading: Hutton Ch. 3.8, 3.9, 8.5

The type class **Eq** is a superset of **Ord**, which contains those types that can be **totally ordered** and **compared** using the standard relational operators.

Every instance of **Ord** is an instance of **Eq**, i.e.,  $\text{Ord} \subseteq \text{Eq}$ , which is similar to inheritance in Java and object-oriented languages:



# Type Classes and Overloading

Reading: Hutton Ch. 3.8, 3.9, 8.5

**Num** – numeric types

The **Num** class contains numeric values, and consists of the following overloaded operators:

**(+)** :: Num a => a -> a -> a

**(\*)** :: Num a => a -> a -> a

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

**negate** :: Num a => a -> a

**abs** :: Num a => a -> a

**signum** :: Num a => a -> a

Hm... where is division?

# Type Classes and Overloading

Reading: Hutton Ch. 3.8, 3.9, 8.5

## Integral – integer types

These are the instances of Num whose values are integers, and support integer division and modulus:

```
div :: Integral a => a -> a -> a
```

```
mod :: Integral a => a -> a -> a
```

```
*Main> div 5 3
```

```
1
```

```
*Main> 5 `div` 3
```

```
1
```

```
*Main> mod 10 4
```

```
2
```

```
*Main> 10 `mod` 4
```

```
2
```

```
*Main>
```

Note that mod and div are prefix functions, to turn any function into infix, use back-quotes.



# Type Classes and Overloading

Reading: Hutton Ch. 3.8, 3.9, 8.5

## Fractional – floating-point types

These are the instances of Num whose values are floating point, and support floating-point division and reciprocation:

```
(/) :: Fractional a => a -> a -> a
```

```
recip :: Fractional a => a -> a
```

```
*Main> 4.0 / 2.2  
1.8181818181818181  
*Main> recip 5  
0.2  
*Main> 4 / 2  
2.0  
*Main> 5 / 2  
2.5  
*Main> 5 / 2.2  
2.2727272727272725
```

The symbols for integers are overloaded, so there is no "type-coercion" from integer to float here. The values are already fractional!