CSc 372

Comparative Programming Languages

5 : Haskell — Function Definitions

Department of Computer Science University of Arizona

collberg@gmail.com

Copyright © 2013 Christian Collberg

- When programming in a functional language we have basically two techniques to choose from when defining a new function:
 - Recursion
 - Omposition
- Recursion is often used for basic "low-level" functions, such that might be defined in a function library.
- Composition (which we will cover later) is used to combine such basic functions into more powerful ones.
- Recursion is closely related to proof by induction.

Defining Functions...

• Here's the ubiquitous factorial function:

• The first part of a function definition is the type signature, which gives the domain and range of the function:

```
fact :: Int -> Int
```

• The second part of the definition is the function declaration, the implementation of the function:

fact n = if n == 0 then \cdots

• The syntax of a type signature is

fun_name :: argument_types
fact takes one integer input argument and returns one
integer result.

• The syntax of function declarations:

fun_name param_names = fun_body

Conditional Expressions

• if e_1 then e_2 else e_3 is a conditional expression that returns the value of e_2 if e_1 evaluates to True. If e_1 evaluates to False, then the value of e_3 is returned. Examples:

if True then 5 else 6
$$\Rightarrow$$
 5

if False then 5 else 6 \Rightarrow 6

if 1==2 then 5 else 6
$$\Rightarrow$$
 6

5 + if 1==1 then 3 else 2 \Rightarrow 8

 Note that this is different from Java's or C's if-statement, but just like their ternary operator ?::

int max = (x>y)?x:y;

```
• Example:
abs :: Int -> Int
abs n = if n>0 then n else -n
sign :: Int -> Int
sign n = if n<0 then -1 else
if n==0 then 0 else 1
```

• Unlike in C and Java, you can't leave off the else-part!

Guarded Equations

 An alternative way to define conditional execution is to use guards:

```
abs :: Int -> Int
abs n | n>= 0 = n
| otherwise = -n
```

- The pipe symbol is read such that.
- otherwise is defined to be True.
- Guards are often easier to read it's also easier to verify that you have covered all cases.

Defining Functions...

- fact is defined recursively, i.e. the function body contains an application of the function itself.
- The syntax of function application is: fun_name arg. This syntax is known as "juxtaposition".
- We will discuss multi-argument functions later. For now, this is what a multi-argument function application ("call") looks like:

fun_name arg_1 arg_2 ··· arg_n

• Function application examples:

fact	1	\Rightarrow 1
------	---	-----------------

- fact 5 \Rightarrow 120
- fact (3+2) \Rightarrow 120

• A simple way (but usually not the right way) of defining an multi-argument function is to use tuples:

```
add :: (Int,Int) -> Int
```

```
add (x,y) = x+y
```

> add (40,2) 42

• Later, we'll learn about Curried Functions.

The error Function

- error string can be used to generate an error message and terminate a computation.
- This is similar to Java's exception mechanism, but a lot less advanced.

```
f :: Int -> Int
f n = if n<0 then
    error "illegal argument"
    else if n <= 1 then
        1
    else
        n * f (n-1)</pre>
```

> f (-1)

Program error: illegal argument

Layout

- A function definition is finished by the first line not indented more than the start of the definition myfunc :: Int -> Int myfunc x = if x == 0 then 0 else 99 myfunc :: Int -> Int myfunc x = if x == 0 then 0 else 99 myfunc :: Int -> Int myfunc x = if x == 0 then 0 else 99
- The last two generate a Syntax error in expression when the function is loaded.

Function Application

- Function application ("calling a function with a particular argument") has higher priority than any other operator.
- In math (and Java) we use parentheses to include arguments; in Haskell no parentheses are needed.

```
> f a + b
```

means

> (f a) + b

since function application binds harder than plus.

• Here's a comparison between mathematical notations and Haskell:

Math	Haskell
f(x)	f x
f(x,y)	fxy
f(g(x))	f (g x)
f(x,g(y))	f x (g y)
f(x)g(y)	f x * g y

Recursive Functions

Typically, a recursive function definition consists of a guard (a boolean expression), a base case (evaluated when the guard is True), and a general case (evaluated when the guard is False).

```
fact n =

if n == 0 then \Leftarrow guard

1 \Leftarrow base case

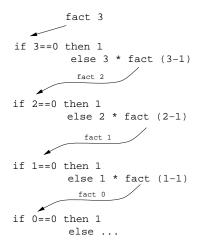
else

n * fact (n-1) \Leftarrow general case
```

Simulating Recursive Functions

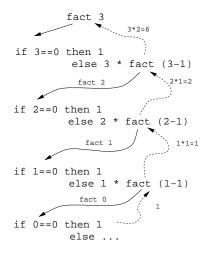
- We can visualize the evaluation of fact 3 using a tree view, box view, or reduction view.
- The tree and box views emphasize the flow-of-control from one level of recursion to the next
- The reduction view emphasizes the substitution steps that the hugs interpreter goes through when evaluating a function. In our notation boxed subexpressions are substituted or evaluated in the next reduction.
- Note that the Haskell interpreter may not go through exactly the same steps as shown in our simulations. More about this later.

Tree View of fact 3



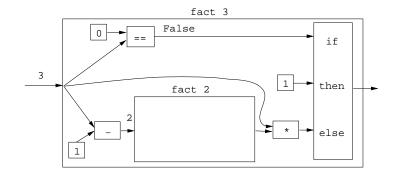
- This is a Tree View of fact 3.
- We keep going deeper into the recursion (evaluating the general case) until the guard is evaluated to True.

Tree View of fact 3

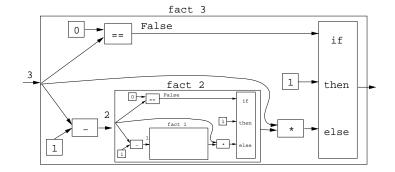


• When the guard is True we evaluate the base case and return back up through the layers of recursion.

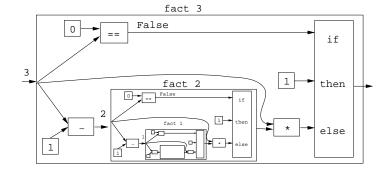
Box View of fact 3



Box View of fact 3...



Box View of fact 3...



```
fact 3 \Rightarrow
if 3 == 0 then 1 else 3 * fact (3-1) \Rightarrow
if False then 1 else 3 * fact (3-1) \Rightarrow
3 * \text{fact} (3-1) \Rightarrow
3 * \text{fact } 2 \Rightarrow
3 * \text{if } 2 == 0 \text{ then } 1 \text{ else } 2 * \text{fact } (2-1) \Rightarrow
3 * if False then 1 else 2 * fact (2-1) \Rightarrow
3 * (2 * fact (2-1)) \Rightarrow
3 * (2 * fact 1) \Rightarrow
3 * (2 * \text{if } 1 == 0 \text{ then } 1 \text{ else } 1 * \text{fact } (1-1))
              \Rightarrow \cdots
```

```
3 * (2 * if 1 == 0 then 1 else 1 * fact (1-1)) \Rightarrow

3 * (2 * if False then 1 else 1 * fact (1-1)) \Rightarrow

3 * (2 * (1 * fact (1-1))) \Rightarrow

3 * (2 * (1 * fact 0)) \Rightarrow

3 * (2 * (1 * if 0 == 0 then 1 else 0 * fact (0-1))) \Rightarrow

3 * (2 * (1 * if True then 1 else 0 * fact (0-1))) \Rightarrow

3 * (2 * (1 * 1)) \Rightarrow

3 * (2 * (1 * 1)) \Rightarrow

3 * (2 * 1) \Rightarrow

6
```

- In the fact function the guard was n==0, and the recursive step was fact(n-1). I.e. we subtracted 1 from fact's argument to make a simpler (smaller) recursive case.
- We can do something similar to recurse over a list:
 - The guard will often be n==[] (other tests are of course possible).
 - O get a smaller list to recurse over, we often split the list into its head and tail, head:tail.
 - The recursive function application will often be on the tail, f tail.

____ In English: _____

The length of the empty list [] is zero. The length of a non-empty list S is one plus the length of the tail of S.

_____ In Haskell: _____

We first check if we've reached the end of the list s==[].
 Otherwise we compute the length of the tail of s, and add one to get the length of s itself.

```
len s = if s == [] then 0 else 1 + len (tail s)
```

Tree View of len [5,6,7]

