



COMP3141

Software System Design and Implementation

Lecture 2: Induction, Data Types, Type Classes

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Term 2 2023

Announcements

Quiz 01: You still have until tomorrow 11:59:59 PM to do it.

Recap: Induction

Suppose we want to prove that a property $P(n)$ holds for **all** natural numbers n .

Remember that the set of natural numbers \mathbb{N} can be defined as follows:

Definition of Natural Numbers

- 1 0 is a natural number.
- 2 For any natural number n , $n + 1$ is also a natural number.

Recap: Induction

Therefore, to show $P(n)$ for all n , it suffices to show:

- 1 $P(0)$ (the *base case*), and
- 2 assuming $P(k)$ (the *inductive hypothesis*),
 $\Rightarrow P(k + 1)$ (the *inductive case*).

Example

Show that $f(n) = n^2$ for all $n \in \mathbb{N}$, where:

$$f(n) = \begin{cases} 0 & \text{if } n = 0 \\ 2n - 1 + f(n - 1) & \text{if } n > 0 \end{cases}$$

Induction on Lists

Haskell lists can be defined similarly to natural numbers.

Definition of Haskell Lists

- 1 `[]` is a list.
- 2 For any list `xs`, `x:xs` is also a list (for any item `x`).

¹Haskell is a lazy language: really, we should say all finite lists

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Definition of Haskell Lists

- ① `[]` is a list.
- ② For any list `xs`, `x:xs` is also a list (for any item `x`).

This means, if we want to prove that a property $P(1s)$ holds for all lists $1s^1$, it suffices to show:

- ① $P([])$ (the base case)
- ② $P(x:xs)$ for all items x , assuming the inductive hypothesis $P(xs)$.

Demo: `map` preserves the length of its input

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- Reasoning about functional programs:
equational reasoning + structural induction

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- Reasoning about functional programs:
equational reasoning + structural induction
- Structural induction: works over lists and other data types
- This course: simple induction proofs over \mathbb{N} and lists.
- For more: **COMP3161**, **COMP4161**.

Enumerated Data Types

100 pts of ID

When applying for a bank account in NSW, you have to provide documents used to verify your identity. Each document is worth some points, and you need a total of 100 or more points to successfully verify your identity.

Real-life example:

- **Primary documents:** *Passport* or *Birth Certificate*. Each worth **70 pts**.
- **Secondary:** *Driver's License* or *Student ID*. The first document used from this list is worth **40 pts**, any additional items **25 pts**.
- **Tertiary:** Existing *credit cards*. Worth **25 pts**.

Enumerated Data Types

Task 1

You work for a bank. Your task is to write a program that calculates the total point value of a given list of documents.

Compound Data Types

While working with days of a month, you might use a type like this:

```
type MonthDay = (Int, Int)  -- (month, day)
```

Notice that:

- Nothing distinguishes your `Int`-pair from any other `Int`-pair.
- You can provide e.g. a pair of image coordinates to a function that expects a `MonthDay`: static type checking does not work for you.

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...or better yet...

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data MonthDay = MonthDay Month Day
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Multiple Constructors

We can of course have multiple constructors. Types with more than one constructor are sometimes called *sum types*. Example: Zoom meetings.

```
data WeekDay = Mon | Tue | Wed | ...
data ZoomMeetingTime
  = Once Year MonthDay
  | RecurringWeekly WeekDay
```


Recursive and Parametric Types

Types can have **type parameters**:

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data Maybe a = Just a | Nothing
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We can even define natural numbers, where 2 is encoded as `Succ(Succ Zero)`:

```
data Natural = Zero | Succ Natural
```

Types in Design

Sage Advice

An old adage due to Yaron Minsky (of Jane Street) is:

*Make illegal states **unrepresentable**.*

Choose types that *constrain* your implementation as much as possible. Then failure scenarios are eliminated by construction.

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Example (Contact Details)

```
data Contact = C Name (Maybe Address) (Maybe Email)
```

is changed to:

```
data ContactDetails = EmailOnly Email
                   | PostOnly Address
                   | Both Address Email
data Contact = C Name ContactDetails
```

What failure state is eliminated here?

Partial Functions

Failure to follow Yaron's excellent advice leads to **partial functions**.

Definition

A *partial function* is a function not defined for all possible inputs.
Examples: `head`, `tail`, `(!!)`, `division`

Partial functions should be avoided, because they can crash your program. How do we eliminate partiality?

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- We can **enlarge the codomain**, usually with a `Maybe` type:

```
safeHead :: [a] -> Maybe a -- Q: How is this safer?
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safeHead (x:xs) = Just x
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- Or we can **constrain the domain** to be more specific:

```
safeHead' :: NonEmpty a -> a -- Q: How to define?
```


Parse, don't validate

```

safeHead :: [a] -> Maybe a
safeHead (x:xs) = Just x
safeHead []     = Nothing
safeHead' :: NonEmpty a -> a
safeHead' (One x _) = x
safeHead' (Cons x _) = x
  
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A slogan from Alexis King:

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Means:

- Validation function should return structured data which cannot represent illegal states (parse).
- Other functions should take only input types they can safely consume (don't validate)

Type Classes

You have already seen functions such as:

- compare
- (==)
- (+)
- show

that work on **multiple types**, and their corresponding constraints on type variables Ord, Eq, Num and Show.

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that work on **multiple types**, and their corresponding constraints on type variables `Ord`, `Eq`, `Num` and `Show`.

These constraints are called *type classes*, and can be thought of as a **set of types** for which certain operations are implemented.



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class Show a where -- nothing to do with OOP
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We can also define instances that depend on other instances:

```
instance Show a => Show (Maybe a) where
  show (Just x) = "Just " ++ show x
  show Nothing  = "Nothing"
```

Fortunately for us, Haskell supports automatically deriving instances for some classes, including Show.

Semigroup

Semigroups

A *semigroup* is a pair of a set S and an operation $\bullet : S \rightarrow S \rightarrow S$ where the operation \bullet is *associative*.

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Associativity is defined as, for all a, b, c :

$$(a \bullet (b \bullet c)) = ((a \bullet b) \bullet c)$$

Haskell has a type class for semigroups! The associativity law is enforced only by programmer discipline:

```
class Semigroup s where
  (<>) :: s -> s -> s
  -- Law: (<>) must be associative.
```

What instances can you think of?

Semigroup

Let's implement additive (RGB) colour mixing:

```
data Color = Color Int Int Int Int
  -- Red, Green, Blue, Alpha (transparency)
instance Semigroup Color where
  (Color r1 g1 b1 a1) <> (Color r2 g2 b2 a2)
    = Color (mix r1 r2)
             (mix g1 g2)
             (mix b1 b2)
             (mix a1 a2)
  where
    mix x1 x2 = min 255 (x1 + x2)
```

Associativity is satisfied.

Monoid

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For colours, the identity element is transparent black:

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For each of the semigroups discussed previously:

- Are they monoids?
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For each of the semigroups discussed previously:

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Are there any semigroups that are **not** monoids?

Newtypes

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- The operation (+) is associative, with identity element 0
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A common technique is to define a **separate type** that is represented identically to the original type, but can have its own, different type class instances.

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A common technique is to define a **separate type** that is represented identically to the original type, but can have its own, different type class instances.

In Haskell, this is done with the `newtype` keyword.

Newtypes

A newtype declaration is much like a data declaration except that there can be only one constructor and it must take exactly one argument:

```
newtype Score = S Integer
```

```
instance Semigroup Score where
  S x <> S y = S (x + y)
```

```
instance Monoid Score where
  mempty = S 0
```

Here, `Score` is represented identically to `Integer`, and thus no performance penalty is incurred to convert between them.

In general, newtypes are a great way to prevent mistakes. Use them frequently!

Ord

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```
class Ord a where  
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- ④ *Totality*: Either $x \leq y$ or $y \leq x$

Relations that satisfy these four properties are called *total orders*.
Without the fourth (totality), they are called *partial orders*.



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Some argue that the Eq class should be only for *equality*, requiring stricter laws like:

If $x == y$ then $f x == f y$ for all functions f

But this is debated.

FIN

Assigned reading: Alexis King - Parse, don't validate (Blog Post)
<https://lexi-lambda.github.io/blog/2019/11/05/parse-don-t-validate/> You don't have to understand all the example code, but you should familiarize yourself with the ideas in the blog post.

- 1 Don't forget to submit Quiz 1.
- 2 Exercise 1 and Quiz 2 will be released tomorrow.