## Background - Type Classes (1B)

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## Based on

http://learnyouahaskell.com/making-our-own-types-and-typeclasses\#the-functor-typeclass
http://learnyouahaskell.com/functors-applicative-functors-and-monoids
Haskell in 5 steps
https://wiki.haskell.org/Haskell_in_5_steps

## Typeclasses and Instances

Typeclasses are like interfaces
defines some behavior
comparing for equality
comparing for ordering
enumeration

Instances of that typeclass
types possessing such behavior
such behavior is defined by

- function definition
- function type declaration only
a function definition
(==) :: a -> a -> Bool
- a type declaration
$x==y=\operatorname{not}(x /=y)$
a function type
(==) :: a -> a -> Bool - a type declaration

A function definition can be overloaded
http://learnyouahaskell.com/making-our-own-types-and-typeclasses\#the-functor-typeclass

## Typeclasses and Type

Typeclasses are like interfaces
defines some behavior
comparing for equality
comparing for ordering
enumeration

Instances of that typeclass
types possessing such behavior
a type is an instance of a typeclass implies
the function types declared by the typeclass are defined (implemented) in the instance
so that we can use the functions that the typeclass defines with that type

No relation with classes in Java or C++
http://learnyouahaskell.com/making-our-own-types-and-typeclasses\#the-functor-typeclass

## Car Type Example

## the Eq typeclass

defines the functions $==$ and $I=$

## a type Car

comparing two cars c 1 and c 2 with the equality function $==$
The Car type is an instance of Eq typeclass

Instances : various types
Typeclass : a group or a class of these similar types
http://learnyouahaskell.com/making-our-own-types-and-typeclasses\#the-functor-typeclass

## TrafficLight Type Example (1)

```
class Eq a where
    (==) :: a -> a -> Bool
    (I=) :: a -> a -> Bool
    x == y = not (x /= y)
    x/= y = not (x == y)
```

data TrafficLight $=$ Red $\mid$ Yellow $\mid$ Green
instance Eq TrafficLight where
Red == Red = True
Green == Green = True
Yellow == Yellow = True
_ = _ = False
- a type declaration
- a type declaration
- a function definition
- a function definition

```
ghci> Red == Red
True
ghci> Red == Yellow
False
ghci> Red `elem` [Red, Yellow, Green]
True
```


## TrafficLight Type Example (2)

- a type declaration

```
class Show a where
```

    show :: a -> String
    ***
    data TrafficLight = Red | Yellow | Green
instance Show TrafficLight where
show Red = "Red light"
data TrafficLight = Red | Yellow | Gre
instance Show TrafficLight where
show Red = "Red light"
data TrafficLight = Red | Yellow | Gre
instance Show TrafficLight where
show Red = "Red light"
show Yellow = "Yellow light"
show Green = "Green light"
data TrafficLight $=$ Red $\mid$ Yellow $\mid$ Green
instance Show TrafficLight where show Red = "Red light" show Yellow = "Yellow light" show Green = "Green light"
data TrafficLight = Red | Yellow | Green
instance Show TrafficLight where
show Red = "Red light"
show
$\qquad$
$\longrightarrow$

## Class Constraints

class $($ Eq a) $=>$ Num a where
$\ldots$
class Num a where

$\ldots$ | class constraint on a class declaration |
| :--- |
| an instance of Eq |
| before being an instance of Num |

(Eq a) =>
Num : a subclass of Eq
typeclass
instance
the required function bodies can be defined in

- the class declaration
- an instance declarations,
we can safely use == because a is a part of Eq
http://learnyouahaskell.com/making-our-own-types-and-typeclasses\#the-functor-typeclass


## Class Constraints : class \& instance declarations

class constraints in class declarations
to make a typeclass a subclass of another typeclass
class (Eq a) => Num a where
class constraints in instance declarations
to express requirements about the contents of some type.
instance (Eq $x$, Eq y) $=>$ Eq (Pair $x y$ ) where
Pair $x 0 \mathrm{y} 0==$ Pair $\mathrm{x} 1 \mathrm{y} 1=x 0==x 1 \& \& y 0==\mathrm{y} 1$
requirements

## subclass

## Class constraints in instance declaration examples

```
instance (Eq m) => Eq (Maybe m) where
\begin{tabular}{rlrl} 
Just x & \(==\) Just y & \(=\) & \(\mathrm{x}==\mathrm{y} \longleftarrow\) Eq m \\
Nothing & \(==\) Nothing & \(=\) & True \\
& \(==\quad\) & & False
\end{tabular}
```

instance (Eq x, Eq y) => Eq (Pair x y) where
Pair $x 0 y 0==$ Pair $x 1 y 1=x 0==x 1 \& \& y 0==y 1$
Eq (Pair $x$ y) Eq $x \quad$ Eq $y$

Derived instance

## A Concrete Type and a Type Constructor

```
a : a concrete type
Maybe : not a concrete type
    : a type constructor that takes one parameter
    produces a concrete type.
Maybe a : a concrete type
```


## Instance of Eq

```
data TrafficLight = Red | Yellow | Green
```

class Eq a where
(==) :: a -> a -> Bool
(I=) :: a -> a -> Bool
$x==y=\operatorname{not}(x /=y)$
$x /=y=\operatorname{not}(x=-y)$
instance Eq TrafficLight where
Red $==$ Red $=$ True
Green == Green = True
Yellow == Yellow = True
_ == _ = False
to define our own type (defining a new data type) allowed values are Red, Yellow, and Green no class (type) instances
class:
defining new typeclasses

## instance :

making types instances of a typeclasses

## Instance of Show

```
instance Show TrafficLight where
show Red = "Red light"
show Yellow = "Yellow light"
show Green = "Green light"
```

ghci> Red $==$ Red
True
ghci> Red $==$ Yellow
False
ghci> Red `elem` [Red, Yellow, Green]
True
ghci> [Red, Yellow, Green]
[Red light, Yellow light,Green light]

4 instance Eq TrafficLight

4 instance Eq TrafficLight

4 instance Eq TrafficLight

4 instance Show TrafficLight

## Instance Maybe m

```
instance Eq Maybe where
    ..
```

```
instance Eq (Maybe m) where
```

instance Eq (Maybe m) where
Just x == Just y = x == y
Just x == Just y = x == y
Nothing == Nothing = True
Nothing == Nothing = True
_ == _ = False
_ == _ = False
instance (Eq m) => Eq (Maybe m) where
Just x == Just y = x == y
Nothing == Nothing = True
_ == _ = False

```
Maybe is not a concrete type
Maybe \(\mathbf{m}\) is a concrete type
all types of the form Maybe m to be part of the Eq typeclass,
but only those types where the \(\mathbf{m}\) (what's contained inside the Maybe) is also a part of Eq.

\section*{Polymorphism in Haskell}

Haskell's combination of
- purity
- higher order functions
- parameterized algebraic data types
- typeclasses
allows us to implement polymorphism on a much higher level

Types in Haskell
- don't have to think about types belonging to a big hierarchy of types
- think about what the types can act like
- and then connect them with the appropriate typeclasses

\section*{Example:}

An Int can act like a lot of things
- like an equatable thing,
- like an ordered thing,
- like an enumerable thing, etc.
http://learnyouahaskell.com/functors-applicative-functors-and-monoids

\section*{Open Typeclasses}

\section*{Typeclasses are open:}
- can define our own data type,
- can think about what it can act like

\section*{Act}
- can connect it with the typeclasses that define its behaviors.
the type declaration of a function
allows us to know a lot about a function
can define typeclasses that define behavior
that is very general and abstract.

Example:
typeclasses that define operations for seeing if two things are equal or comparing two things by some ordering.
- those are very abstract and elegant behaviors,
- those are not anything very special
because these operations are most common
http://learnyouahaskell.com/functors-applicative-functors-and-monoids

\section*{Functors, Applicatives, Monads}
\begin{tabular}{ll} 
functors: & you apply a function to a wrapped value \\
applicatives: & you apply a wrapped function to a wrapped value \\
monads: & you apply a function that returns a wrapped value, to a wrapped value
\end{tabular}
functors: using fmap or <\$>
applicatives: using <*> or liftA
monads: using >>= or liftM
https://softwareengineering.stackexchange.com/questions/303472/what-is-the-purpose-of-wrapped-values-in-haskell

\section*{Functors}

Functors use the fmap or <\$> functions
\[
\text { fmap or }<\$>\text { Functor } f=>(\mathbf{a}->\mathbf{b})->\mathrm{f} \mathbf{a}->\mathrm{f} \mathbf{b}
\]

This takes a function and applies to to the wrapped elements
```

fmap (l\mathbf{ -> x + 1) (Just 1) -- Applies (+1) to the inner value, returning (Just 2)}
fmap (l\mathbf{x -> x + 1) Nothing -- Applies (+1) to an empty wrapper, returning Nothing}
fmap (l\mathbf{x -> x + 1) [1, 2, 3] -- Applies (+1) to all inner values, returning [2, 3, 4]}]
(lx -> x + 1) <\$> [1, 2, 3] -- Same as above

```

\section*{Applicatives}

Applicatives use the <*> function:
<*> Applicative f \(=>\) f(a -> b) -> fa \(\mathbf{~ - > ~ f ~ b ~}\)

This takes a wrapped function and applies it to the wrapped elements
\begin{tabular}{|c|c|}
\hline (Just (lx -> \(\mathrm{x}+1\) ) \({ }^{\text {< }}\) * ( (ust 1) & -- Returns (Just 2) \\
\hline (Just (lx -> \(x+1\) )) <*> Nothing & -- Returns Nothing \\
\hline Nothing <*> (Just 1) & -- Returns Nothing \\
\hline [(*2), (*4)] <*> [1, 2] & -- Returns [2, 4, 4, 8] \\
\hline
\end{tabular}
https://softwareengineering.stackexchange.com/questions/303472/what-is-the-purpose-of-wrapped-values-in-haskell

\section*{Monads - return}

There are two relevant functions in the Monad typeclass:
```

return Monad m => a -> m a
(>>=) Monad m => m a -> (a -> m b) -> m b

```

The return function takes a raw, unwrapped value, and wraps it up in the desired monadic type.
```

makeJust :: a -> Maybe a
makeJust x = return x

```
let foo = makeJust 10
-- returns (Just 10)

\section*{Monads - bind}

The bind function lets you
temporarily unwrap the inner elements of a Monad and pass them to a function that performs some action that wraps them back UP in the same monad.

This can be used with the return function in trivial cases:
```

[1, 2, 3, 4] >>= (lx -> return (x + 1)) -- Returns [2, 3, 4, 5]
(Just 1) >>= (lx -> return (x+1)) -- Returns (Just 2)
Nothing >>= (lx -> return (x + 1)) -- Returns Nothing

```

\section*{Monads - a chain of functions}

Where it gets interesting is when you have functions to chain together that don't require you to use return.

\section*{getLine IO String}
putStrLn String -> IO ()

You can call these functions like so:
getLine >>= (lx -> putStrLn \(\mathbf{x}\) ) -- Gets a line from \(I O\) and prints it to the console
getLine >>= putStrLn -- With currying, this is the same as above
-- Reads a line from IO, converts to a number, adds 10 and prints it
getLine >>= (return . read) >>= (return . (+10)) >>= putStrLn . show
https://softwareengineering.stackexchange.com/questions/303472/what-is-the-purpose-of-wrapped-values-in-haskell

\section*{Promises and Mediators}
the concept of promises that's been gaining traction recently (particularly in Javascript).
A promise is an object that acts as a placeholder
for the result value of an asynchronous, background computation,
like fetching some data from a remote service.
a mediator between the asynchronous computation and functions that need to operate on its anticipated result.
```

Act

```

Behavior
Operation

Define
Connect

\section*{General Monad - MonadPlus}

Haskell's Control.Monad module defines a typeclass, MonadPlus, that enables abstract the common pattern eliminating case expressions.
```

class Monad m => MonadPlus m where
mzero :: m a
mplus:: ma-> ma-> ma

```
instance MonadPlus [] where
    mzero = []
    Mplus = (++)
instance MonadPlus Maybe where
    mzero \(=\) Nothing
    Nothing `mplus` ys =ys
    xs `mplus`_=xs
http://book.realworldhaskell.org/read/programming-with-monads.htm|

\section*{General Monad - MonadPlus Laws}

The class MonadPlus is used for monads that have a zero element and a plus operation:
```

class (Monad m) => MonadPlus m where
mzero :: ma
mplus :: ma-> ma-> ma

```

For lists, the zero value is [], the empty list. The I/O monad has no zero element and is not a member of this class.
\begin{tabular}{lll}
\(m \gg=\mid x->m z e r o\) & \(=\) & mzero \\
mzero \(\gg=m\) & \(=\) & mzero
\end{tabular}\(\quad\) The zero element laws:
\begin{tabular}{ll}
m `mplus`mplus & \(=\mathrm{m}\) \\
mplus `mplus` \(m\) & \(=\mathrm{m}\)
\end{tabular}

The laws governing the mplus operator

The mplus operator is ordinary list concatenation in the list monad.
http://book.realworldhaskell.org/read/programming-with-monads.html

\section*{Functional Dependency (fundep)}
```

class class Mult | a b -> c where
(*) :: a -> b -> c

```
\(\mathbf{c}\) is uniquely determined from \(\mathbf{a}\) and \(\mathbf{b}\)

Fundeps are not standard Haskell 98.
(Nor are multi-parameter type classes, for that matter.) They are, however, supported at least in GHC and Hugs and will almost certainly end up in Haskell'.

\section*{class class Mult where}
(*) :: a -> b -> c
https://wiki.haskell.org/Functional_dependencies

\section*{Eq, Ord, Show classes}

Since equality tests between values are frequently used most of your own data types should be members of Eq.

Prelude classes
- Eq
- Ord
- Show
for the convenience, Haskell has a way to declare such "obvious" instance definitions using the keyword deriving.
https://en.wikibooks.org/wiki/Haskell/Classes_and_types

\section*{Deriving instance example}
```

data Foo = Foo {x :: Integer, str :: String}
deriving (Eq, Ord, Show)

```

This makes Foo an instance of Eq with an automatically generated definition of \(==\) and also an instance of Ord and Show
```

data Foo = Foo {x :: Integer, str :: String}
instance Eq Foo where
(Foo x1 str1) == (Foo x2 str2)
= (x1 == x2) \&\& (str1 == str2)
*Main> Foo 3 "orange" == Foo 6 "apple"
False
*Main> Foo 3 "orange" |= Foo 6 "apple"
True

```

\section*{Deriving instance pros and cons}

The types of elements inside the data type
must also be instances of the class you are deriving.

Deriving instances
- synthesis of functions for a limited set of predefined classes
- against the general Haskell philosophy :
"built in things are not special",
- induces compact codes
- often reduces errors in coding
(an example: an instance of Eq such that \(x==y\)
would not be equal to \(\mathrm{y}=\mathrm{x}\) would be flat out wrong).
https://en.wikibooks.org/wiki/Haskell/Classes_and_types

\section*{Derivable Classes}

\section*{Eq}

Equality operators \(==\) and \(I=\)

\section*{Ord}

Comparison operators \ll= >>=; min, max, and compare.

\section*{Enum}

For enumerations only. Allows the use of list syntax such as [Blue .. Green].

\section*{Bounded}

Also for enumerations, but can also be used on types that have only one constructor.
Provides minBound and maxBound as the lowest and highest values that the type can take.

\section*{Show}

Defines the function show, which converts a value into a string, and other related functions.

\section*{Read}

Defines the function read, which parses a string into a value of the type,
and other related functions.
https://en.wikibooks.org/wiki/Haskell/Classes_and_types

\section*{References}
[1] ftp://ftp.geoinfo.tuwien.ac.at/navratil/HaskellTutorial.pdf
[2] https://www.umiacs.umd.edu/~hal/docs/daume02yaht.pdf```


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