

## 第三章：类型和类族

基本概念，基本类型，  
组合类型 (List, Tuple, Function)，  
多态类型，基本类族

# What is a Type?

A type is a collection of related values. For example, in Haskell the basic type

Bool

contains the two logical values:

False

True

# Type Errors

Applying a function to one or more arguments of the wrong type is called a type error.

```
> 1 + False  
error ...
```

1 is a number and False is a logical value, but + requires two numbers.

# Types in Haskell

- If evaluating an expression  $e$  would produce a value of type  $t$ , then  $e$  has type  $t$ , written

$$e :: t$$

- Every well formed expression has a type, which can be automatically calculated at compile time using a process called type inference.

$$f :: A \rightarrow B \quad e :: A$$

---

$$f e :: B$$

- All type errors are found at compile time, which makes programs safer and faster by removing the need for type checks at run time.
- In GHCi, the `:type` command calculates the type of an expression, without evaluating it:

```
> not False
True

> :type not False
not False :: Bool
```

# Basic Types

Haskell has a number of basic types, including:

**Bool**

- logical values

**Char**

- single characters

**String**

- strings of characters

# Basic Types

Haskell has a number of basic types, including:

**Int** - *fix-precision* integer numbers. GHC:  $[-2^{63}, 2^{63}-1]$

Evaluating  $2^{63} :: \text{Int}$  gives a negative number

**Integer** - *arbitrary-precision* integer numbers.

Evaluating  $2^{63} :: \text{Integer}$  gives the correct result

**Word** - *fix-precision unsigned* integer numbers.

- the same size with Int

**Natural** - *arbitrary-precision unsigned* integer numbers.

- defined in the module **Numeric.Natural** (located in **base** package)

# Basic Types

Haskell has a number of basic types, including:

Float

- *single-precision* floating-point numbers

Evaluating `sqrt 2 :: Float` gives `1.4142135`

Double

- *double-precision* floating-point numbers

Evaluating `sqrt 2 :: Double` gives `1.4142135623730951`



# List Types

A list is a sequence of values of the same type:

```
[False, True, False] :: [Bool]
```

```
['a', 'b', 'c', 'd'] :: [Char]
```

In general:

[t] is the type of lists with elements of type t.

## Note:

- The type of a list says nothing about its length:

```
[False, True] :: [Bool]
```

```
[False, True, False] :: [Bool]
```

- The type of the elements is unrestricted. For example, we can have lists of lists:

```
[['a'], ['b', 'c']] :: [[Char]]
```

# Tuple Types

A tuple is a sequence of values of possibly-different types:

```
(False,True) :: (Bool,Bool)
```

```
(False,'a',True) :: (Bool,Char,Bool)
```

In general:

$(t_1, t_2, \dots, t_n)$  is the type of  $n$ -tuples whose  $i$ th components have type  $t_i$  for any  $i$  in  $1 \dots n$ .

## Note:

- The type of a tuple encodes its size:

```
(False, True) :: (Bool, Bool)
```

```
(False, True, False) :: (Bool, Bool, Bool)
```

- The type of the components is unrestricted:

```
('a', (False, 'b')) :: (Char, (Bool, Char))
```

```
(True, ['a', 'b']) :: (Bool, [Char])
```

# Function Types

A function is a mapping from values of one type to values of another type:

```
not :: Bool → Bool
```

```
even :: Int → Bool
```

In general:

$t1 \rightarrow t2$  is the type of functions that map values of type  $t1$  to values to type  $t2$ .

## Note:

- The arrow  $\rightarrow$  is typed at the keyboard as `->`.
- The argument and result types are unrestricted. For example, functions with multiple arguments or results are possible using lists or tuples:

```
add :: (Int,Int) -> Int
add (x,y) = x+y
```

```
zeroto :: Int -> [Int]
zeroto n = [0..n]
```

# Curried Functions

Functions with multiple arguments are also possible by returning functions as results:

```
add' :: Int → (Int → Int)
add' x y = x+y
```

add' takes an integer x and returns a function add' x. In turn, this function takes an integer y and returns the result x+y.

## Note:

- add and add' produce the same final result, but add takes its two arguments at the same time, whereas add' takes them one at a time:

```
add :: (Int,Int) → Int
```

```
add' :: Int → (Int → Int)
```

- Functions that take their arguments one at a time are called curried functions, celebrating the work of Haskell Curry on such functions.



- Functions with more than two arguments can be curried by returning nested functions:

```
mult :: Int → (Int → (Int → Int))  
mult x y z = x*y*z
```

mult takes an integer  $x$  and returns a function mult  $x$ , which in turn takes an integer  $y$  and returns a function mult  $x y$ , which finally takes an integer  $z$  and returns the result  $x*y*z$ .

## Why is Currying Useful?

Curried functions are more flexible than functions on tuples, because useful functions can often be made by partially applying a curried function.

For example:

```
add' 1 :: Int → Int
take 5 :: [Int] → [Int]
drop 5 :: [Int] → [Int]
```

# Currying Conventions

To avoid excess parentheses when using curried functions, two simple conventions are adopted:

- The arrow  $\rightarrow$  associates to the right.

`Int  $\rightarrow$  Int  $\rightarrow$  Int  $\rightarrow$  Int`

Means  $\text{Int} \rightarrow (\text{Int} \rightarrow (\text{Int} \rightarrow \text{Int}))$ .

- As a consequence, it is then natural for function application to associate to the left.

```
mult x y z
```

Means  $((\text{mult } x) y) z$ .

Unless tupling is explicitly required, all functions in Haskell are normally defined in curried form.

# Polymorphic Functions

A function is called polymorphic (“of many forms”) if its type contains one or more type variables.

```
length :: [a] → Int
```

For any type  $a$ , `length` takes a list of values of type  $a$  and returns an integer.

## Note:

- Type variables can be instantiated to different types in different circumstances:

```
> length [False, True]
2
```

a = Bool

```
> length [1, 2, 3, 4]
4
```

a = Int

- Type variables must begin with a lower-case letter, and are usually named a, b, c, etc.

- Many of the functions defined in the standard prelude are polymorphic. For example:

```
fst :: (a,b) → a
```

```
head :: [a] → a
```

```
take :: Int → [a] → [a]
```

```
zip :: [a] → [b] → [(a,b)]
```

```
id :: a → a
```

# Overloaded Functions

A polymorphic function is called overloaded if its type contains one or more class constraints.

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

For any numeric type  $a$ ,  $(+)$  takes two values of type  $a$  and returns a value of type  $a$ .



## Note:

- Constrained type variables can be instantiated to any types that satisfy the constraints:

```
> 1 + 2  
3
```

a = Int

```
> 1.0 + 2.0  
3.0
```

a = Float

```
> 'a' + 'b'  
ERROR
```

Char is not a numeric  
type

- Haskell has a number of type classes, including:

**Num** - Numeric types

**Eq** - Equality types

**Ord** - Ordered types

- For example:

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

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

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

# Eq: equality types

(以下文字来自Prelude官方说明文档)

<https://hackage.haskell.org/package/base-4.15.0.0/docs/Prelude.html#t:Eq>

```
class Eq a where
```

# Source

The `Eq` class defines equality (`==`) and inequality (`/=`). All the basic datatypes exported by the `Prelude` are instances of `Eq`, and `Eq` may be derived for any datatype whose constituents are also instances of `Eq`.

The Haskell Report defines no laws for `Eq`. However, `==` is customarily expected to implement an equivalence relationship where two values comparing equal are indistinguishable by "public" functions, with a "public" function being one not allowing to see implementation details. For example, for a type representing non-normalised natural numbers modulo 100, a "public" function doesn't make the difference between 1 and 201. It is expected to have the following properties:

## Reflexivity

```
x == x = True
```

## Symmetry

```
x == y = y == x
```

## Transitivity

```
if x == y && y == z = True, then x == z = True
```

## Substitutivity

```
if x == y = True and f is a "public" function whose return type is an instance of Eq, then f x == f y = True
```

## Negation

```
x /= y = not (x == y)
```

# Eq: equality types

(以下文字来自Prelude官方说明文档)

<https://hackage.haskell.org/package/base-4.15.0.0/docs/Prelude.html#t:Eq>

## Minimal complete definition

```
(==) | (/=)
```

## Methods

```
(==) :: a -> a -> Bool | infix 4 |
```

```
(/=) :: a -> a -> Bool | infix 4 |
```

```
class Eq a => Ord a where
```

[# Source](#)

The `Ord` class is used for totally ordered datatypes.

Instances of `Ord` can be derived for any user-defined datatype whose constituent types are in `Ord`. The declared order of the constructors in the data declaration determines the ordering in derived `Ord` instances. The `Ordering` datatype allows a single comparison to determine the precise ordering of two objects.

The Haskell Report defines no laws for `Ord`. However, `<=` is customarily expected to implement a non-strict partial order and have the following properties:

### Transitivity

if `x <= y` && `y <= z` = `True`, then `x <= z` = `True`

### Reflexivity

`x <= x` = `True`

### Antisymmetry

if `x <= y` && `y <= x` = `True`, then `x == y` = `True`

Note that the following operator interactions are expected to hold:

- `x >= y = y <= x`
- `x < y = x <= y && x /= y`
- `x > y = y < x`
- `x < y = compare x y == LT`
- `x > y = compare x y == GT`
- `x == y = compare x y == EQ`
- `min x y == if x <= y then x else y = True`
- `max x y == if x >= y then x else y = True`

Note that (7.) and (8.) do *not* require `min` and `max` to return either of their arguments. The result is merely required to *equal* one of the arguments in terms of `(==)`.

# Ord

Minimal complete definition: either `compare` or `<=`. Using `compare` can be more efficient for complex types.

## Minimal complete definition

```
compare | (<=)
```

## Methods

```
compare :: a -> a -> Ordering
```

# Source

```
(<) :: a -> a -> Bool | infix 4 |
```

# Source

```
(<=) :: a -> a -> Bool | infix 4 |
```

# Source

```
(>) :: a -> a -> Bool | infix 4 |
```

# Source

```
(>=) :: a -> a -> Bool | infix 4 |
```

# Source

```
max :: a -> a -> a
```

# Source

```
min :: a -> a -> a
```

# Source

data **Ordering**

### Constructors

**LT**

**EQ**

**GT**

# Num: basic numeric class

(以下文字来自Prelude官方说明文档)

<https://hackage.haskell.org/package/base-4.15.0.0/docs/Prelude.html#t:Num>

```
class Num a where
```

# Source

Basic numeric class.

The Haskell Report defines no laws for `Num`. However, `(+)` and `(*)` are customarily expected to define a ring and have the following properties:

### Associativity of `(+)`

$$(x + y) + z = x + (y + z)$$

### Commutativity of `(+)`

$$x + y = y + x$$

### `fromInteger 0` is the additive identity

$$x + \text{fromInteger } 0 = x$$

### `negate` gives the additive inverse

$$x + \text{negate } x = \text{fromInteger } 0$$

### Associativity of `(*)`

$$(x * y) * z = x * (y * z)$$

### `fromInteger 1` is the multiplicative identity

$$x * \text{fromInteger } 1 = x \text{ and } \text{fromInteger } 1 * x = x$$

### Distributivity of `(*)` with respect to `(+)`

$$a * (b + c) = (a * b) + (a * c) \text{ and } (b + c) * a = (b * a) + (c * a)$$

Note that it *isn't* customarily expected that a type instance of both `Num` and `Ord` implement an ordered ring. Indeed, in `base` only `Integer` and `Rational` do.



## Methods

```
(+) :: a -> a -> a | infixl 6 | # Source
```

```
(-) :: a -> a -> a | infixl 6 | # Source
```

```
(*) :: a -> a -> a | infixl 7 | # Source
```

```
negate :: a -> a # Source
```

Unary negation.

```
abs :: a -> a
```

Absolute value.

```
signum :: a -> a
```

Sign of a number. The functions `abs` and `signum` should satisfy the law:

```
abs x * signum x == x
```

For real numbers, the `signum` is either `-1` (negative), `0` (zero) or `1` (positive).

```
fromInteger :: Integer -> a # Source
```

Conversion from an `Integer`. An integer literal represents the application of the function `fromInteger` to the appropriate value of type `Integer`, so such literals have type `(Num a) => a`.

### Minimal complete definition

```
(+), (*), abs, signum, fromInteger, (negate | (-))
```



# Hints and Tips

- When defining a new function in Haskell, it is useful to begin by writing down its type;
- Within a script, it is good practice to state the type of every new function defined;
- When stating the types of polymorphic functions that use numbers, equality or orderings, take care to include the necessary class constraints.

# 作业

3-1 What are the types of the following values?

```
['a', 'b', 'c']
```

```
('a', 'b', 'c')
```

```
[(False, '0'), (True, '1')]
```

```
([False, True], ['0', '1'])
```

```
[tail, init, reverse]
```

### 3-2 What are the types of the following functions?

```
second xs = head (tail xs)
```

```
swap (x,y) = (y,x)
```

```
pair x y = (x,y)
```

```
double x = x*2
```

```
palindrome xs = reverse xs == xs
```

```
twice f x = f (f x)
```

and check your answers using GHCi.

**3-3** 阅读教科书，用例子（在ghci上运行）展示Int与Integer的区别以及show和read的用法。

**3-4** 阅读教科书以及Prelude模块的官方文档，理解Integral和Fractional两个Type Class中定义的函数/操作符，用例子（在ghci上运行）展示每一个函数/操作符的用法。