

Abstracting Code Patterns

```
data List a
  = []
  | (:) a (List a)
```

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Abstracting Code Patterns

Rendering the Values of a List

```
-- >>> showList [1, 2, 3]
-- ["1", "2", "3"]
showList      :: [Int] -> [String]
showList []   = []
showList (n:ns) = show n : showList ns
```

Squaring the values of a list

```
-- >>> sqrList [1, 2, 3]
-- 1, 4, 9
sqrList      :: [Int] -> [Int]
sqrList []   = []
sqrList (n:ns) = n^2 : sqrList ns
```

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Common Pattern: map over a list

Refactor iteration into mapList

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

Reuse map to implement inc and sqr

```
showList xs = map (\n -> show n) xs
```

```
sqrList xs = map (\n -> n ^ 2) xs
```

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What about trees?

```
data Tree a
  = Leaf
  | Node a (Tree a) (Tree a)
```

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What about trees?

```
-- >>> showTree (Node 2 (Node 1 Leaf Leaf) (Node 3 Leaf Leaf))
-- (Node "2" (Node "1" Leaf Leaf) (Node "3" Leaf Leaf))
showTree :: Tree Int -> Tree String
showTree Leaf          = ???
showTree (Node v l r) = ???

-- >>> sqrTree (Node 2 (Node 1 Leaf Leaf) (Node 3 Leaf Leaf))
-- (Node 4 (Node 1 Leaf Leaf) (Node 9 Leaf Leaf))
sqrTree :: Tree Int -> Tree Int
sqrTree Leaf          = ???
sqrTree (Node v l r) = ???
```

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Lets write mapTree

```
mapTree :: (a -> b) -> Tree a -> Tree b
mapTree f Leaf          = ???
mapTree f (Node v l r) = ???
```

Wait ... there is a common pattern across two *datatypes*

```
mapList :: (a -> b) -> List a -> List b    -- List
mapTree :: (a -> b) -> Tree a -> Tree b    -- Tree
gmap    :: (Mappable t) => (a -> b) -> t a -> t b
```

Lets make a **class** for it!

```
class Functor t where
  fmap :: ???
```

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Reuse Iteration Across Types

```
instance Functor [] where
  fmap = mapList
```

```
instance Functor Tree where
  fmap = mapTree
```

And now we can do

```
-- >>> fmap (\n -> n^2) (Node 2 (Node 1 Leaf Leaf) (Node 3
Leaf Leaf))
-- (Node 4 (Node 1 Leaf Leaf) (Node 9 Leaf Leaf))

-- >>> fmap show [1,2,3]
-- ["1", "2", "3"]
```

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Exercise: Write a Functor instance

```
data Result a
  = Error String
  | Ok a
instance Functor Result where
  fmap f (Error msg) = ???
  fmap f (Ok val)    = ???
```

When you're done you should see

```
>>> fmap (\n -> n ^ 2) (Error "oh no")
(Error "oh no")
>>> fmap (\n -> n ^ 2) (Ok (Node 2 (Node 1 Leaf Leaf) (Node 3
Leaf Leaf)))
(Ok (Node 4 (Node 1 Leaf Leaf) (Node 9 Leaf Leaf)))
```

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Exercise: Write a Functor instance

```
data Result a
  = Error String
  | Ok a
instance Functor Result where
  fmap f (Error msg) = ???
  fmap f (Ok val)    = ???
```

When you're done you should see

```
-- >>> fmap (\n -> n ^ 2) (Error "oh no")
-- (Node 2 (Node 1 Leaf Leaf) (Node 3 Leaf Leaf))
-- (Node 4 (Node 1 Leaf Leaf) (Node 9 Leaf Leaf))
```

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Next: A Class for Sequencing

Recall our old `Expr` datatype

```
data Expr
  = Number Int
  | Plus  Expr Expr
  | Div   Expr Expr
  deriving (Show)

eval :: Expr -> Int
eval (Number n)   = n
eval (Plus e1 e2) = eval e1 + eval e2
eval (Div e1 e2)  = eval e1 `div` eval e2

-- >>> eval (Div (Number 6) (Number 2))
-- 3
```

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But, what is the result

```
-- >>> eval (Div (Number 6) (Number 0))
-- *** Exception: divide by zero
```

A crash! Lets look at an alternative approach to avoid dividing by zero.

The idea is to return a `Result Int` (instead of a plain `Int`)

- If a *sub-expression* had a divide by zero, return `Error "..."`
- If all sub-expressions were safe, then return the actual `Result v`

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But, what is the result

```
eval :: Expr -> Result Int
eval (Number n)   = Value n
eval (Plus e1 e2) = case e1 of
  Error err1 -> Error err1
  Value v1   -> case e2 of
    Error err2 -> Error err2
    Value v2   -> Result (v1 + v2)

eval (Div e1 e2) = case e1 of
  Error err1 -> Error err1
  Value v1   -> case e2 of
    Error err2 -> Error err2
    Value v2   ->
      if v2 == 0
      then Error ("yikes dbz:" ++ show e2)
      else Value (v1 `div` v2)
```

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But, what is the result

The **good news**, no nasty exceptions, just a plain **Error** result

```
λ> eval (Div (Number 6) (Number 2))
Value 3
λ> eval (Div (Number 6) (Number 0))
Error "yikes dbz:Number 0"
λ> eval (Div (Number 6) (Plus (Number 2) (Number (-2))))
Error "yikes dbz:Plus (Number 2) (Number (-2))"
```

The **bad news**: the code is super duper **gross**

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Let's spot a Pattern

The code is gross because we have these cascading blocks

```
case e1 of
  Error err1 -> Error err1
  Value v1    -> case e2 of
                    Error err2 -> Error err2
                    Value v2   -> Result (v1 + v2)
```

but really both blocks have something **common pattern**

```
case e of
  Error err -> Error err
  Value v   -> {- do stuff with v -}
```

1. Evaluate `e`
2. If the result is an **Error** then *return* that error.
3. If the result is a **Value** `v` then *do some further processing* on `v`.

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Let's spot a Pattern

Lets **bottle** that common structure in two functions:

- `>>=` (pronounced *bind*)
- `return` (pronounced *return*)

```
(>>=) :: Result a -> (a -> Result b) -> Result b
(Error err) >>= _ = Error err
(Ok v) >>= process = process v
```

```
return :: a -> Result a
return v = Ok v
```

NOTE: `return` is *not* a keyword; it is just the name of a function!

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A Cleaned up Evaluator

The magic bottle lets us clean up our `eval`

```
eval :: Expr -> Result Int
eval (Number n) = return n
eval (Plus e1 e2) = eval e1 >>= \v1 ->
    eval e2 >>= \v2 ->
    return (v1 + v2)
eval (Div e1 e2) = eval e1 >>= \v1 ->
    eval e2 >>= \v2 ->
    if v2 == 0
    then Error ("yikes dbz:" ++ show e2)
    else return (v1 `div` v2)
```

The gross *pattern matching* is all hidden inside `>>=`

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A Cleaned up Evaluator

Notice the `>>=` takes two inputs of type:

- `Result Int` (e.g. `eval e1` or `eval e2`)
- `Int -> Result Int` (e.g. The *processing* function that takes the `v` and does stuff with it)

In the above, the processing functions are written using

```
\v1 -> ... and \v2 -> ...
```

NOTE: It is *crucial* that you understand what the code above is doing, and why it is actually just a “shorter” version of the (gross) nested-case-of `eval`.

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A Class for >>=

Like `fmap` or `show` or `join` or `==`, the `>>=` operator is useful across many types, so we capture it in an interface/typeclass:

```
class Monad m where
  (>>=) :: m a -> (a -> m b) -> m b
  return :: a -> m a
```

Notice how the definitions for `Result` fit the above, with `m = Result`

```
instance Monad Result where
  (>>=) :: Result a -> (a -> Result b) -> Result b
  (Error err) >>= _ = Error err
  (Ok v) >>= process = process v

  return :: a -> Result a
  return v = Ok v
```

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Syntax for >>=

In fact >>= is so useful there is special syntax for it.

Instead of writing

```
e1 >>= \v1 ->  
e2 >>= \v2 ->  
e3 >>= \v3 ->  
e
```

you can write

```
do v1 <- e1  
  v2 <- e2  
  v3 <- e3  
  e  
...
```

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Syntax for >>=

Thus, we can further simplify our `eval` to:

```
eval :: Expr -> Result Int  
eval (Number n)   = return n  
eval (Plus e1 e2) = do v1 <- eval e1  
                      v2 <- eval e2  
                      return (v1 + v2)  
eval (Div e1 e2)  = do v1 <- eval e1  
                      v2 <- eval e2  
                      if v2 == 0  
                        then Error ("yikes dbz:" ++ show e2)  
                        else return (v1 `div` v2)
```

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Purity and the Immutability Principle

Haskell is a *pure* language. Not a *value* judgment, but a precise *technical* statement:

The “Immutability Principle”:

- A function must *always* return the same output for a given input
- A function’s behavior should *never change*

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No Side Effects

Haskell's most radical idea: `expression ==> value`

- When you evaluate an expression you get a value and **nothing else happens**

Specifically, evaluation must not have any **side effects**

- *change* a global variable or
- *print* to screen or
- *read* a file or
- *send* an email or
- *launch* a missile.

Purity means functions may depend only on their inputs
functions should give the same output for the same input every time

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But... how to write “Hello, world!”

But, we *want* to ...

- print to screen
- read a file
- send an email

A language that only lets you write `factorial` and `fibonacci` is
... *not very useful!*

Thankfully, you *can* do all the above via a very clever idea: **Recipe**

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Recipes

Haskell has a special type called **IO** - which you can think of as **Recipe**

`type Recipe a = IO a`

A *value* of type **Recipe a** is

- a **description** of an effectful computations
- **when executed** (possibly) perform some effectful I/O operations to
- **produce** a value of type `a`.

Recipes have No Effects

A value of type `Recipe a` is

- Just a **description** of an effectful computation
- An inert, perfectly safe thing with **no effects**.

Merely having a `Recipe Cake` has no effects: holding the recipe

- Does not make your oven *hot*
- Does not make your your floor *dirty*

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Executing Recipes

There is **only one way** to execute a `Recipe a`

Haskell looks for a special value

```
main :: Recipe ()
```

The value associated with `main` is handed to the **runtime system** and **executed**

The Haskell runtime is the only one allowed to cook!

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How to write an App in Haskell

Make a `Recipe ()` that is handed off to the master chef `main`.

- `main` can be arbitrarily complicated
- will be composed of *many smaller* recipes

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Hello World

```
putStrLn :: String -> Recipe ()
```

The function `putStrLn`

- takes as input a `String`
- returns as output a `Recipe ()`

`putStrLn msg` is a `Recipe ()` when executed prints out `msg` on the screen.

```
main :: Recipe ()
```

```
main = putStrLn "Hello, world!"
```

... and we can compile and run it

```
$ ghc --make hello.hs
```

```
$ ./hello
```

```
Hello, world!
```

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QUIZ: Combining Recipes

Next, lets write a program that prints multiple things:

```
main :: IO ()
```

```
main = combine (putStrLn "Hello,") (putStrLn "World!")
```

```
-- putStrLn :: String -> Recipe ()
```

```
-- combine  :: ???
```

What must the *type* of `combine` be?

(A) `combine :: () -> () -> ()`

(B) `combine :: Recipe () -> Recipe () -> Recipe ()`

(C) `combine :: Recipe a -> Recipe a -> Recipe a`

(D) `combine :: Recipe a -> Recipe b -> Recipe b`

(E) `combine :: Recipe a -> Recipe b -> Recipe a`

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Using Intermediate Results

Next, lets write a program that

1. Asks for the user's name using

```
getLine :: Recipe String
```

2. Prints out a greeting with that name using

```
putStrLn :: String -> Recipe ()
```

Problem: How to pass the *output* of *first* recipe into the *second* recipe?

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QUIZ: Using Yolks to Make Batter

Suppose you have two recipes

```
crack      :: Recipe Yolk
eggBatter :: Yolk -> Recipe Batter
```

and we want to get

```
mkBatter :: Recipe Batter
mkBatter = crack `combineWithResult` eggBatter
```

What must the type of `combineWithResult` be?

- (A) `Yolk -> Batter -> Batter`
- (B) `Recipe Yolk -> (Yolk -> Recipe Batter) -> Recipe Batter`
- (C) `Recipe a -> (a -> Recipe a) -> Recipe a`
- (D) `Recipe a -> (a -> Recipe b) -> Recipe b`
- (E) `Recipe Yolk -> (Yolk -> Recipe Batter) -> Recipe ()`

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Look Familiar?

Wait a bit, the signature looks familiar!

```
combineWithResult :: Recipe a -> (a -> Recipe b) -> Recipe b
```

Remember this?

```
(>>=) :: Result a -> (a -> Result b) -> Result b
```

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Recipe is an instance of Monad

```
instance Monad Recipe where
  (>>=) = {-... combineWithResult... -}
```

So we can put this together with `putStrLn` to get:

```
main :: Recipe ()
main = getLine >>= \name -> putStrLn ("Hello, " ++ name ++ "!")
```

or, using `do` notation the above becomes

```
main :: Recipe ()
main = do name <- getLine
        putStrLn ("Hello, " ++ name ++ "!")
```

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Recipe is an instance of Monad

Exercise

1. *Compile* and run to make sure its ok!
2. *Modify* the above to repeatedly ask for names.
3. *Extend* the above to print a “prompt” that tells you how many iterations have occurred.

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Monads are Amazing

Monads have had a *revolutionary* influence in PL, well beyond Haskell, some recent examples

- Error handling in go e.g. [1](#) and [2](#)
- Asynchrony in JavaScript e.g. [1](#) and [2](#)
- Big data pipelines e.g. [LinQ](#) and [TensorFlow](#)
- and Language-based security!

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