Getting Started In Haskell

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Slides and Exercises

With Git installed, you can run this command to download the slides and exercises.

```
$ git clone https://github.com/wyc/haskell-intro.git
```

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These slides have coverage of:

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glhf!

Introduction

Haskell is *statically-typed*, *functional*, *immutable*, and *lazy*.

Statically-Typed

- Types are checked at compile time, as opposed to runtime.

Functional

- "Code is data."

Immutable

- Values do not get overwritten.

Lazy

- Evaluation is deferred for as long as possible.

Statically-Typed

Types are checked at compile time, as opposed to runtime.

```c
int add(int x, int y) {
        return x + y;
}

int main() {
        add(1, 2);
        add(1, "two");
        return 0;
}
```

```
$ gcc -o s s.c
s.c: In function ‘main’:
s.c:9:20: warning: passing argument 2 of ‘add’
  makes integer from pointer without a cast
         add(1, "two");
                ^
```

Functional

"Code is data."

Functions are passed around as easily as any other values, getting "first-class" treatment. This style allows us operate on whole data structures as opposed to just pieces of them at a time.

```
$ node
> [1, 2, 3, 4, 5]
    .map((elem) => elem * 2)
    .reduce((acc, elem) => acc * elem, 1)
3840
```

Immutable

Values do not get overwritten, or else you get yelled at.

```
$ node
> const a = 5
undefined
> a = 6
TypeError: Assignment to constant variable.
```

Immutable

What's the difference between Caching and Memoization?

- Caching is hoping that the result happens to be in a fast store, and then fetching it if it isn't.
- Memoization is remembering the mapping of specific inputs to their results for a function.

A function can only be memoized if it is *referentially transparent*, otherwise known as *immutable* or *pure*; the same inputs must always produce the same result.

Lazy

Evaluation is deferred for as long as possible.

"Don't start cleaning the apartment until the doorbell rings, and then only clean the parts that they can see."

```
Prelude> [1..]
[1,2,3,4,5,6,7,8,9,10,11,12,13,14,15,16,17,18,19,20,21,22,2
Prelude> take 5 [1..]
[1,2,3,4,5]
```

Goodbye to Pretense

You don’t need category theory, abstract algebra, or graduate-level algorithms to use or understand Haskell.

Hello, functional programming

To to remove the first three elements:

OOP-like:

```
[1,2,3,4,5].drop(3)  // [4,5]
```

Functional:

```
drop 3 [1,2,3,4,5]  -- [4,5]
```

In functional programming, we focus on the functions! When you focus on the objects themselves, you're "object-oriented".

Functional programming

Focus on functions.

- We ask "what can this function operate on?" and not "what can this object do?"
- What if we didn't have countless POJOs, and instead some core functions that we can use over and over again?

Composability is key!

```
Prelude> map (drop 1) [[1, 2, 3], [4, 5, 6], [7, 8, 9]]

[[2,3],[5,6],[8,9]]
```

Getting Started (1/5)

1. Install Stack and the Glasgow Haskell Compiler (GHC) for GNU/Linux, Mac OSX, or Windows from `https://docs.haskellstack.org/en/stable/README/`
2. Setup Stack.

   ```
   $ stack setup
   ```

3. Write `hello.hs`:

   ```haskell
   main :: IO ()
   main = do
   putStrLn "Hello, World!"
   ```

Getting Started (2/5)

4. Compile it and run!

```
$ stack ghc hello.hs
$ ./hello
Hello, World!
```

5. Alternatively, you can use runhaskell:

```
$ stack runhaskell hello.hs
Hello, World!
```

Getting Started (3/5)

7. Write a function to use in GHC's interactive environment, `ghci`. `myfuncs.hs`:

   ```haskell
   salesTax :: Double -> Double
   salesTax price = price * 0.089
   ```

8. Enter the `ghci` shell and load your source file.

   ```
   $ stack ghci
   GHCi, version 8.0.2: http://www.haskell.org/ghc/
   Prelude> :load myfuncs
   [1 of 1] Compiling Main ( myfuncs.hs, interpreted )
   Ok, modules loaded: Main.
   *Main> salesTax 100
   8.9
   ```

Getting Started (4/5)

7. Importing modules:

```
-- Haskell
import Data.Char
import Data.Char (ord)
import qualified Data.Char as C

ord 'a'    -- 97
C.ord 'a'  -- 97

# Python
import data.char
import ord from data.char
import data.char as C

ord('a')    # 97
C.ord('a')  # 97
```

Getting Started (5/5)

8. Try importing from `ghci`.

```
$ stack ghci
GHCi, version 8.0.2: http://www.haskell.org/ghc/
Prelude> import Data.Char (ord)
Prelude Data.Char> ord 'a'
97
```

Basic Types

Types start with a Capital letter, variables (including functions and type variables) start with lowercase.

- `Int`
  - Fixed-Precision Whole Number
- `Integer`
  - Unbounded Whole Number
- `Float`
  - Single-Precision Floating
- `Double`
  - Double-Precision Floating
- `Bool`
  - True or False
- `Char`
  - Single character, such as `'a'`

Lists (1/2)

- `List`
  - For example, list of `Char` looks like `[Char]`
  - The type resembles generic lists in Java such as `List<T>` (instantiated to `List<Character>`), but that's where the similarities end.
  - Lisp-style construction (Horribly inefficient for, e.g., binary data? Yes. More on this later.) Illustration in JSON:

```
{
    'value': 5,
    'next': {
        'value': 4,
        'next': {
            value: 3,
            'next': null
        }
    }
}
```

Lists (2/2)

- `List` (continued...)
  - Literal notation: `[1,2,3]`
  - Syntactic sugar for: `1:2:3:[]`, where `:` prepends a single element to a list, and `[]` is an empty list:

    ```
    Prelude> 1:[2,3]
    [1,2,3]
    ```

  - List items must all be of the same type. Heterogenous lists are possible using advanced language features, but they are usually an anti-pattern. When have you ever been happy to see `List<Object>` in Java?

Operations on Lists (1/4)

- Take first element with `head`:

```
Prelude> head [1,2,3]
1
Prelude> head []
*** Exception: Prelude.head: empty list
```

- Take *n*th element using the index `(!!)` operator:

```
Prelude> [10, 11, 12] !! 0
10
Prelude> [10, 11, 12] !! 2
12
Prelude> [10, 11, 12] !! 5
*** Exception: Prelude.!!: index too large
```

Operations on Lists (2/4)

- Check for the presence of a value using `elem`:

```
Prelude> elem 99 [42, 52, 62]
False
Prelude> elem 42 [42, 52, 62]
True
```

- Reverse a list with `reverse`:

```
Prelude> reverse [1,2,3,4]
[4,3,2,1]
```

Operations on Lists (3/4)

- Add two lists together with `++`:

```
Prelude> [1,2] ++ [3,4]
[1,2,3,4]
Prelude> "type" ++ "writer"
"typewriter"
```

- Grab the first *n* elements with `take`:

```
Prelude> take 2 [1,2,3,4,5]
[1,2]
```

Operations on Lists (4/4)

- Mapping a function across a list with `map`:

```
Prelude> let addFive x = x + 5
Prelude> map addFive [1,2,3]
[6,7,8]
```

- Reducing a list with `foldr`:

```
Prelude> foldr (\acc elem -> acc + elem) 0 [1,2,3]
6
```

Tuples (1/2)

- Tuple
  - Store several values into a single value. They can be of any type, but you must know how many values there will be.
  - For example,

```
Prelude> let point = (3,4)
Prelude> fst origin
3
Prelude> snd origin
4
Prelude> let point3d = (3,4,5)
Prelude> let location = ("Germany", (51.1657, 10.4515))
Prelude> fst location
"Germany"
Prelude> snd location
(51.1657, 10.4515)
```

Tuples (2/2)

- Tuple (continued...)
  - An associative list is `[(a, b)]`, for example, one of type `[(String, Int)]`:

    ```
    Prelude> let eatingContestScores =
                 [("Jimmy", 5), ("Sally", 8)]
    Prelude> lookup "Jimmy" eatingContestScores
    Just 5
    ```

  - Tuples are of different types when they vary in size or constituent types:

    ```
    Prelude> (5, 5) :: (Int, Int)
    Prelude> (5, 5, 5) :: (Int, Int, Int)
    Prelude> (5, "Five") :: (Int, String)
    ```

Reading Types (1/5)

`::` can generally be read as "has type", and it is a more of a declaration than an observation.

```
-- 5 ``has type'' Int
Prelude> 5 :: Int
-- 5 ``has type'' Integer
Prelude> 5 :: Integer
-- 5 ``has type'' String...uh oh, we can't do that!
Prelude> 5 :: String

<interactive>:1:1: error:
    • No instance for (Num String) arising from
      the literal ‘5’
    • In the expression: 5 :: String
      In an equation for ‘it’: it = 5 :: String
```

Reading Types (2/5)

The *function arrow* or *function operator* `->` denotes a function that takes an argument of the type on the left and returns a value of the type on the right.

```
-- addFive ``has type'' function that takes
--   an Int and returns an Int
addFive :: Int -> Int
addFive x = x + 5

-- mkAdder ``has type`` function that takes
--   an Int and returns a (function that takes
--     an Int and returns an Int)
newAdder :: Int -> (Int -> Int)
newAdder x = (\y -> y + x)
addFive = (newAdder 5)
```

Reading Types (3/5)

More practice reading types.

```
import Data.Char (toLower)
-- toLower ``has type'' function that takes a Char
--   and returns a Char
toLower :: Char -> Char

-- lowerString ``has type`` function that takes
--   a list of characters and returns a list of
--   characters
lowerString :: [Char] -> [Char]
lowerString = map toLower

Prelude> map toLower "ABCDE"
"abcde"
Prelude> lowerString "ABCDE"
"abcde"
```

Reading Types (4/5)

You can use `:t` in GHCi to ask about an expression's type.

```
Prelude> :t "Hello, World!"
"Hello, World!" :: [Char]
-- String and [Char] are the same type

Prelude> let addFive x = x + 5
Prelude> :t addFive
addFive :: Num a => a -> a
Prelude> addFive 1.2
6.2
```

Reading Types (5/5)

Locking down the type:

```
Prelude> :t (addFive :: Int -> Int)
(addFive :: Int -> Int) :: Int -> Int

Prelude> (addFive :: Int -> Int) 1.2 -- BOOM!
<interactive>:3:25: error:
    • No instance for (Fractional Int) arising
      from the literal ‘1.2’
    • In the first argument of
      ‘addFive :: Int -> Int’, namely ‘1.2’
      In the expression:
      (addFive :: Int -> Int) 1.2
      In an equation for ‘it’:
      it = (addFive :: Int -> Int) 1.2
```

Currying (1/2)

Currying is the process of transforming a function that takes multiple arguments into a function that takes just a single argument and returns another function if any arguments are still needed.

```haskell
-- Uncurried
add (x, y) = x + y
add (5, 2)
```

Curried forms are preferred because they allow for partial application:

```haskell
-- Curried
add x y = x + y
addFive = add 5
addFive 2
```

Currying (2/2)

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

add :: Int -> Int -> Int
add x y = x + y

add :: Int -> (Int -> Int)
add x = (\y -> x + y)

add :: (Int -> (Int -> Int))
add = (\x -> (\y -> x + y))

-- Arrow is Right-Associative
-- (Int -> Int -> Int) is (Int -> (Int -> Int))
```

Reading the Type of map (1/3)

```
Prelude> import Data.Char (toLower)

Prelude Data.Char> :t map
map :: (a -> b) -> [a] -> [b]

-- `a' and `b' are known as type variables,
-- because they can represent any type. They
-- are uncapitalized to distinguish them
-- from specific types such as `Int'.

Prelude Data.Char> :t toLower
toLower :: Char -> Char

Prelude Data.Char> :t map toLower
map toLower :: [Char] -> [Char]
```

Reading the Type of `map` (2/3)

Hindley–Milner type inference!

1. Pass `toLower` to `map`.

   ```
   map ::     (a    -> b   ) -> [a] -> [b]
   toLower :: (Char -> Char)
   ```

2. See if there could be a fit.

   ```
   (a    -> b   ) -> [a] -> [b]
   (Char -> Char)
   ```

3. There it is! Substitute `let a = Char, b = Char in`

   ```
   (Char -> Char) -> [Char] -> [Char]
   (Char -> Char)
   ```

4. "Subtract," and then our result is

   ```
   [Char] -> [Char]
   map toLower :: [Char] -> [Char]
   ```

Reading the Type of `map` (3/3)

We've just done partial function application!

```
map :: (a -> b) -> [a] -> [b]
lowerString = (map toLower :: [Char] -> [Char])
```

`lowerString` is the resulting function of a partially-applied `map`.

`map` has `a` and `b` so we can change the type of the list.

```
Prelude> :t even
even :: Int -> Bool
Prelude> :t [1,2,3]
[1,2,3] :: [Int]

Prelude> map even [1,2,3]
[False,True,False]
Prelude> :t [False,True,False]
[False,True,False] :: [Bool]
```

Reading Typeclasses (1/5)

`Num` is a typeclass that defines some common numeric operations. Think interfaces in Java or Go, except that typeclasses apply to types.

```
Prelude> let addFive x = x + 5
Prelude> :t addFive
addFive :: Num a => a -> a
Prelude> addFive 1.2
6.2
```

Reading Typeclasses (2/5)

List function examples:

```
fst :: (a,b) -> a

head :: [a] -> a

take :: Int -> [a] -> [a]

zip :: [a] -> [b] -> [(a,b)]

id :: a -> a
```

Reading Typeclasses (3/5)

Abbreviated examples:

```haskell
sum :: Num a => [a] -> a
sum = foldl (+) 0

-- Num - Numeric Types
(+) :: Num a => a -> a -> a
-- Eq  - Equality Types
(=) :: Eq a => a -> a -> Bool
-- Ord - Ordered Types
(<) :: Ord a => a -> a -> Bool
```

Reading Typeclasses (4/5)

Nearly-complete definition from the GHC source code:

```haskell
-- | Basic numeric class.
class  Num a  where
    (+), (-), (*)       :: a -> a -> a
    -- | Unary negation.
    negate              :: a -> a
    -- | Absolute value.
    abs                 :: a -> a
    -- | Sign of a number.
    signum              :: a -> a
    -- | Conversion from an 'Integer'.
    fromInteger         :: Integer -> a

    x - y               = x + negate y
    negate x            = 0 - x
```

Reading Typeclasses (5/5)

Typeclasses are useful because they allow us to define functions that can work across a variety of types sharing common properties.

```haskell
class Show a where
    show       :: a   -> String
    -- ...more function requirements

instance Show Int where
    show = showSignedInt'  -- Some low-level function

prefixedShow :: (Show a) => String -> a -> String
prefixedShow prefix x = prefix ++ ": " ++ show x

prefixedShow "MyValue" 42      -- "MyValue: 42"
prefixedShow "MyPet"   "cat"  -- "MyPet: \"cat\""
prefixedShow "MyPoint" (4,5)  -- "MyPoint: (4,5)"
```

Infixed Functions (1/3)

Functions can be put in between arguments like this:

```
Prelude> 5 + 5
10
```

They are of type `a -> b -> c`.

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

When surrounded by parentheses, they are considered in *prefix notation*, meaning that they are called like any other non-infixed functions.

```
Prelude> (+) 5 5
10
```

Infixed Functions (2/3)

Likewise, non-infix functions matching type `a -> b -> c` may be used as infix functions.

```
Prelude> mod 12 5
2
Prelude> 12 `mod` 5
2
```

This is all just syntactic sugar.

Infixed Functions (3/3)

In other languages such as C, infix functions are built in. In Haskell, we can define our own.

```
infixr 0 ~ -- right associative
-- a ~ b ~ c becomes a ~ (b ~ c)

infixl 0 ~ -- left associative
-- a ~ b ~ c becomes (a ~ b) ~ c

infix  0 ~ -- non-associative
-- a ~ b ~ c becomes (a ~ b) ~ c OR a ~ (b ~ c)
```

They have associativity and precendence (0 the weakest, 9 the strongest).

Anonymous Functions

Anonymous functions help us not think about names. They can be defined as follows:

```
add :: Int -> Int -> Int
add = \x y -> x + y

addFive :: Int -> Int
addFive = \x -> add x 5
```

They are expressions, and can be used as inputs to functions that take functions as arguments or assigned to variables.

```
Prelude> map (\x -> x + 5) [1,2,3]
[6,7,8]
Prelude> let double = (\x -> x * 2) in double 5
10
```

Evaluation Order

When in doubt, use parentheses.

```
Prelude> 5 - 3 * 2
-1
Prelude> (5 - 3) * 2
4
```

You can then look up the associativity and precendence per operator to reason about what the execution would be.

Symbols Related to Evaluation Order

You will encouner two symbols that help dictate order of evaluation, `$` is known as *application*, and `.` is known as *function composition*.

- `($)` calls the function which is its left-hand argument on the value which is its right-hand argument.

  ```
  map addFive (map addFive [1,2,3])
  -- Same as
  map addFive $ map addFive [1,2,3]
  ```

- `(.)` composes the function which is its left-hand argument on the function which is its right-hand argument.

  ```
  addFive (double 5)
  -- Same as
  (addFive . double) 5
  ```

(Source: ellisbben, StackOverflow)

PITFALL: Mismatched Arguments (1/3)

Watch out for what gets passed in as arguments!

```
Prelude> map addFive map addFive [1,2,3]

<interactive>:3:1: error:
• Couldn't match expected type ‘(Integer -> Integer)
                                -> [Integer] -> t’
              with actual type ‘[Integer]’
• The function ‘map’ is applied to four arguments,
  but its type
  ‘(Integer -> Integer) -> [Integer] -> [Integer]’
  has only two
  In the expression:
    map addFive map addFive [1, 2, 3]
  In an equation for ‘it’:
    it = map addFive map addFive [1, 2, 3]
• Relevant bindings include
    it :: t (bound at <interactive>:3:1)
```

PITFALL: Mismatch Arguments (2/3)

```
-- ...continued
<interactive>:3:13: error:
• Couldn't match expected type
    ‘[Integer]’
  with actual type
    ‘(a0 -> b0) -> [a0] -> [b0]’
• Probable cause: ‘map’ is applied to too few arguments
  In the second argument of ‘map’, namely ‘map’
  In the expression:
    map addFive map addFive [1, 2, 3]
  In an equation for ‘it’:
    it = map addFive map addFive [1, 2, 3]
```

PITFALL: Mismatched Arguments (3/3)

```
map addFive map addFive [1,2,3]
|---^-------^---^-------^
    1       2   3       4
```

Instead, do:

```
map addFive (map addFive [1,2,3])
|---^-------^
    1       2
```

Or

```
map addFive $ map addFive [1,2,3]
|---^-------^
    1       2
```

Pattern Matching

Pattern matching is an extremely useful technique that is a staple in functional programming languages. It allows us to "search" for the data we want from an expression. We will cover:

- Pattern matching constants, lists, and tuples
- Using pattern matching in
  - Function Definitions (we've already been using them!)
  - Guards
  - `where`
  - `let`
  - `case...of`

Pattern Matching in Haskell is top to bottom, left to right.

Pattern Matching: In JavaScript

Here is an example of code with and without destructuring syntax in ES6:

```
const user  = {name: "Jones", age: 50,
               email: "jones@jones.com"}
const name  = user.name
const age   = user.age
const email = user.email
```

With pattern matching:

```
const user = {name: "Jones", age: 50,
              email: "jones@jones.com"}
const {name, age, email} = user
```

While destructuring isn't pattern matching, it has a similar intent, and there are even proposals to add true pattern matching to the language (see references).

Pattern Matching: Matching Constants (1/2)

Somewhere in `test.hs`:

```
guess :: Int -> Bool
guess 5 = True

(guess 5)  -- True
(guess 10) -- BOOM!
-- *** Exception: Non-exhaustive
--        patterns in function guess
```

GHC can warn us about this before it happens!

```
$ ghc -Wall test.hs
test.hs:83:1: warning: [-Wincomplete-patterns]
    Pattern match(es) are non-exhaustive
    In an equation for ‘guess’:
        Patterns not matched:
            p where p is not one of {5}
```

Pattern Matching: Matching Constants (2/2)

Fixed, in `test.hs`:

```
guess :: Int -> Bool
guess 5 = True
guess _ = False
```

- Underscore (_) means "throw this value out, we're not going to use it."
- Patterns are tried sequentially until there's a match.
- If no match could be found, then an exception is thrown. Therefore, it's good practice to have catch-all patterns at the end.

Pattern Matching: Matching Lists

Lists can be matched in a way that grants you their first few elements, which is very useful in recursive functions. The form is `(x:xs)`.

```
map :: (a -> b) -> [a] -> [b]
map f (x:xs) = (f x):(map f xs)
map f []     = []  -- Cover all the cases
```

If necessary, we can also specify a handle for the whole list:

```
addListLengthToFirstElement :: [Int] -> Int
addListLengthToFirstElement lst@(x:_) = length lst + x
addListLengthToFirstElement [] = error "empty list"
```

PITFALL: Matching Lists

Be wary of these syntax fails that can lead to confusing compiler errors:

```
sum [x:xs] = x + sum xs  -- NO

sum x:xs = x + sum xs    -- NO

sum (x:xs) = x + sum xs  -- ok
```

Pattern Matching: Matching Tuples

We can pull the values right out of tuples using pattern matching.

```
dist :: (Double, Double) -> (Double, Double) -> Double
dist (x, y) (x', y') =
    sqrt $ (x - x') ** 2 + (y - y') ** 2
Prelude> dist (0.0, 0.0) (1.0, 1.0)
1.4142135623730951
```

Even with nesting:

```
showIdAndFullName :: (Int, (String, String)) -> String
showIdAndFullName (id', (firstName, lastName)) =
    show id' ++ ": " ++ firstName ++ " " ++ lastName
Prelude> showIdAndFullName (5, ("Rebecca", "Jones"))
"5: Rebecca Jones"
```

Pattern Not-Matching: Guards

Guards are ways to test whether some properties are true or false. They don't actually do pattern matching. However, they can be used with the `where` clause to do pattern matching. They are evaluated sequentially.

```
scovilleComment :: Int -> String
scovilleComment score
    | score < 0 = "Huh?"
    | score <= 300     = "What spice?"
    | score <= 700     = "Eh...mild."      -- Frank's
    | score <= 3500    = "A bit of kick!"  -- Tabasco
    | score <= 10000   = "Mmm, spicy."     -- Orange Kush
    | score <= 1500000 = "WOW THAT'S HOT"  -- Pyro Diablo
    | otherwise        = "OMG"
```

PITFALL: Guards

Do not put an equal sign after the function name and variables:

```
-- NO
guess x =
    | x == 5    = "You got it!"
    | otherwise = "Wrong!"

-- ok
guess x
    | x == 5    = "You got it!"
    | otherwise = "Wrong!"

-- ok
guess x | x == 5    = "You got it!"
        | otherwise = "Wrong!"
```

Pattern Matching: `where`

`where` can be used to help things read nicer and avoid repetition.

```
totalCompensation :: Int -> Int -> Int -> Int -> Int
totalCompensation base yearsEmployed rank performance =
    base + bonus
    where rankMultiplier = (yearsEmployed / rank) `mod` 2
          bonus = rankMultiplier * performance * 10000
```

We can see right away that `totalCompensation` simply returns `base + bonus`, but if we want more detail, then we can dig in to the `where` clause. They can also be used to pattern match:

```
showPoint :: (Double, Double) -> String
showPoint p = "In " ++ show p ++ " " ++ x' ++ "," ++ y'
    where (x, y) = p
          x' = "x=" ++ show x
          y' = "y=" ++ show y
Prelude> showPoint (1,2)
"In (1,2) x=1, y=2"
```

Pattern Matching: `let`

`let` can be used to pattern match in the form of:

```
let <bindings> in <expression>
```

`let` itself is an expression and therefore produces a value, which is an important difference from `where`.

```
quadratic :: Double -> Double -> Double -> Int -> Double
quadratic a b c sign =
    let sign'       = if sign >= 0 then 1.0 else -1.0
        rootTerm    = sqrt $ (b**2) - 4*a*c
        numerator   = (- b) + (sign') * rootTerm
        denominator = 2 * a
    in
        numerator / denominator
```

Pattern Matching: case...of

Case expressions can be thought as guards that do pattern matching instead of property testing. Like `let`, they are expressions.

```
case expression of pattern -> result
                   pattern -> result
                   pattern -> result
                   ...
```

(Source: Learn You a Haskell)

```
showPointType :: (Double, Double) -> String
showPointType p = "Point Type: " ++ case p of
    (0, 0)    -> "Origin"
    (_, 0)    -> "Y-Intercept"
    (0, _)    -> "X-Intercept"
    otherwise -> "Normal Point"
Prelude> showPointType (0, 0)
"Point Type: Origin"
```

`if...then...else`

`if...then...else` constructs in Haskell are better thought of as *if expressions* than *if statements*. They evaluate to a value depending on what comes after `if`. They cannot be used to pattern match.

```
addIfEven :: Int -> Int -> Int
addIfEven x y = x + if even y then y else 0
```

PITFALL: Sometimes spacing matters

```haskell
zeroIfEven :: Int -> Int

zeroIfEven x =  -- NO
    if even x then
        0
    else
        x

zeroIfEven x =  -- ok
    if even x
--  ^ Code Block 1
        then 0
        else x
--      ^ Code Block 2
```

Sum Types (1/7)

If we have three types of people: employees, managers, and clients, how do we cleanly represent them? Let's say we're using Go.

```go
type PersonType string

const (
    EmployeePersonType PersonType = "Employee"
    ManagerPersonType PersonType = "Manager"
    ClientPersonType PersonType = "Client"
)
```

Sum Types (2/7)

```go
type PersonType string
```

The primary benefit is that the compiler gives us some type checks for `PersonType`.

```go
func AmIOkay(pt PersonType) bool {
        switch pt {
        case ManagerPersonType:
            fallthrough
        case ClientPersonType:
            return true
        case EmployeePersonType:
            return false
        default:
            panic(fmt.Sprintf(
                "Unknown PersonType: %s", pt))
        }
}
```

Sum Types (3/7)

```
type PersonType string
```

Disadvantages:

- Strings are expensive to pass around
- Strings are OVERKILL. c^{strlen} possibilities!
- Someone can just decide to invent a new type via cast: `PersonType("Daughter")`
- No exhaustiveness checks

We could consider using enum-like `iota`, but the last 3 points would still exist.

Sum Types (4/7)

```go
type PersonType string
```

What if we forget one of the checks?

```diff
-         case EmployeePersonType:
-               return false
```

Runtime error!

```
$ go run test.go
panic: Unknown PersonType: Employee

goroutine 1 [running]:
panic(0x48c5c0, 0xc42000a320)
```

Sum Types (5/7)

Enter sum types!

```
-- Person is a sum type with zero-argument value
--   constructors of Employee, Manager, and Client.
data Person = Employee | Manager | Client

greet :: PersonType -> String
greet pt = case pt of
    Employee -> "G'day, employee!"
    Manager -> "Hello, manager."

main :: IO ()
main = do
    putStrLn $ greet Client
```

Sum Types (6/7)

Run it:

```
$ ghc -Wall test.hs
test.hs:33:12: warning: [-Wincomplete-patterns]
    Pattern match(es) are non-exhaustive
    In a case alternative: Patterns not matched: Client

$ ./test
test: test.hs:(33,12)-(35,32):
              Non-exhaustive patterns in case
```

Sum Types (7/7)

Fixed:

```
greet :: PersonType -> String
greet pt = case pt of
    Employee -> "G'day, employee!"
    Manager -> "Hello, manager."
    Client -> "Hey!"
```

```
$ ghc -Wall test.hs
$ ./test
Hey!
```

Product Types (1/2)

Sum types can be combined with product types to store additional data:

```
data ApptTime = NotScheduled | WalkIn | At UTCTime
--                                      ^
--                    This product type combines At
--                    and UTCTime to form a new type.
--                    They're "glued" together.

apptStatus :: ApptTime -> String
apptStatus apptTime = case apptTime of
    NotScheduled -> "Not currently scheduled."
    WalkIn -> "Walk in during business hours."
    At time -> "Arrive by " ++ show time
```

The data can be accessed using pattern matching, as seen with `time`.

Product Types (2/2)

Running our latest example:

```haskell
-- ...

main :: IO ()
main = do
    currentTime <- getCurrentTime
    putStrLn $ apptStatus (At currentTime)
```

```
$ ghc -Wall test.hs
$ ./test
Arrive by 2017-05-08 10:04:09.234585398 UTC
```

Algebriac Data Types

Sum and product types together make up the *algebriac data types* (ADTs) in Haskell. These are not to be confused with *abstract data types*. There are also *generic algebriac data types* (GADTs), but those are out of scope for this presentation.

```
-- Sum Types are combined with '|',
--   behaving like an "OR" operator
data MySumType = A | B
-- Product Types are combined with ' ',
--   behaving like an "AND" operator
data MyProductType = C D
```

Namespaces and Constructors (1/12)

Haskell has two namespaces:

- One for *values*.
- One for *types*.

Constructors:

- A data/value constructor is a “function” that takes 0 or more values and gives you back a new value.
- A type constructor is a “function” that takes 0 or more types and gives you back a new type.

(Source: kqr, StackOverflow)

Namespaces and Constructors (2/12)

The `data` operator constructs a new type.

```
data Color = Red | Green | Blue
Red :: Color
Green :: Color
Blue :: Color
```

```
data Color = RGB Int Int Int
RGB :: Int -> Int -> Int -> Color
```

For all practical purposes you can just think of data constructors as constants belonging to a type.

Namespaces and Constructors (3/12)

Same-named constructors

```haskell
data Person = Person String Int
--    ^         ^
--    |   Here we declared and defined a
--    |   value constructor named ``Person''.
--    |   To construct the value, we need a String value
--    |   followed by an Int value. It takes two value
--    |   arguments, so it is ``binary''.
--    |
--  Here we declared and defined a type constructor
--  named ``Person''. It takes no type arguments and is
--  therefore considered ``nullary''.
```

Namespaces and Constructors (4/12)

```
data Point a = Point a a
--   ^         ^
--   |   Created a binary value constructor named
--   |   ``Point'' which takes two value arguments
--   |   of type a.
--   |
--  Created a type constructor named ``Point''
--  that takes one type argument such as Int or
--  Double. It is ``unary''.

Prelude> :t Point (3.0 :: Double) (4.0 :: Double)
--          ^ value constructor
Point (3.0 :: Double) (4.0 :: Double) :: Point Double
--                        type constructor ^
```

PITFALL: Constructor Naming

```haskell
-- NO
data Person = String Int
--    ^        ^
--    |   Created a value constructor named
--    |   ``String''. Possible because it is
--    |   currently available in the value
--    |   namespace (although not in the type
--    |   namespace). Probably not what was intended.
--    |
--  Created a nullary type constructor ``Person''

-- ok
data Person = Person String Int
```

Namespaces and Constructors (5/12)

Pattern matching is the primary way we access the data wrapped in value constructors.

```
data Person = Person String Int
showNameAndAge :: Person -> String
showNameAndAge (Person name age) =
    name ++ " age=" ++ show age

Prelude> showNameAndAge (Person "Fred" 2)
"Fred age=2"
```

Namespace and Constructors (6/12)

Next example:

```
-- Cats have a certain number of lives
data Creature = Dog String | Cat String Int
showCreature :: Creature -> String
showCreature c = case c of
    (Dog name)       -> name
    (Cat name lives) -> name ++ " lives=" ++ show lives

Prelude> showCreature (Dog "Fido")
"Fido"
Prelude> showCreature (Cat "Mittens" 9)
"Mittens lives-left=9"
```

Namespaces and Constructors (7/12)

Another pattern matching example for constructed values:

```
-- Function from the test-taking belt of New Jersey
data Grade = A | B | C | D | F
data TestResult = Complete Grade | Missed
showTestResult :: TestResult -> String
showTestResult Missed = "The test was missed."
showTestResult (Complete g) = case g of
    A         -> "Top score!"
    B         -> "Horrible score, but you'll live!"
    otherwise -> "Why even bother?"

Prelude> showTestResult (Complete A)
"Top score!"
```

Namespaces and Constructors (8/12)

Here is an example of a recursive type definition:

```
data List a = Nil | Cons a (List a)
```

- `List` is a unary type constructor, meaning it takes one type argument. This can be anything from `Int`, to `Char`, to `[Char]`, etc.

  ```
  List :: * -> *
  ```

- `Nil` is a nullary value constructor, taking no value arguments.

  ```
  Nil :: List a
  ```

- `Cons` is a binary value constructor, taking two value arguments.

  ```
  Cons :: a -> List a -> List a
  ```

Namespaces and Constructors (9/12)

Here is an example of a recursive type definition:

```
data List a = Nil | Cons a (List a)
```

Kinds

`List` can be viewed as an even higher-order function with the *kind* of `* -> *`, in the same fashion as `Int -> Int`.

Kinds are *higher than types*.

`*` represents a type argument, and in this case, the *type variable* `a`, which contains a type.

Namespaces and Constructors (10/12)

You can ask GHCi to print out some kinds:

```
-- Int is a nullary type constructor
Prelude> :k Int
Int :: *

-- Int is a unary type constructor
Prelude> :k []
[] :: * -> *

-- We feed [] :: (* -> *) an Int :: *
Prelude> :k [Int]
[Int] :: *
```

PITFALL: Value Constructor Argument Mismatch

Value constructors only understand nullary type constructors (of kind `*`). Watch out for argument mismatches. In this case, the RHS `List` does not get passed the type argument `a`. Instead, `List` gets passed to `Cons` as its second argument and `a` gets passed as its third:

```haskell
-- NO
data List a = Nil | Cons a List a
--                       ^ ^    ^
--                       1 2    3
```

Instead, wrap the type constructor and its type argument in parentheses.

```haskell
-- ok
data List a = Nil | Cons a (List a)
--                       ^ ^
--                       1 2
```

Namespaces and Constructors (11/12)

Here is an example of a recursive type definition:

```
data List a = Nil | Cons a (List a)
```

Value constructors explained (again):

- `Nil` is a nullary value constructor: it takes no values to make a new constructed value. This is just like a previous example of three of them:

  ```
  data = Employee | Manager | Client
  ```

- `Cons` is a binary value constructor. It takes a first argument of type `a` and a second argument of type `List a`. This is okay because `List` is of kind `* -> *`, so when it is passed the type variable `a` in the expression `List a`, the resulting kind is `*`, just like `Int`.

Namespaces and Constructors (12/12)

Our List in action:

```
(Cons 5 Nil)                         :: Num a => List a
(Cons 5 (Cons 4 Nil))                :: Num a => List a
(Cons 5 (Cons 4 (Cons 3 Nil)))       :: Num a => List a

car                    :: List a -> a
car (Cons x _)         = x
car Nil                = error "car called on Nil List"

-- Compare to the GHC source code:
-- | Extract the first element of a list...
head                        :: [a] -> a
head (x:_)                  =  x
head []                     =  badHead
```

Records (1/2)

Records are a way to generate accessor functions for a constructed value.

With records:

```
data Person = Person String Int deriving Show
Prelude> :t Person "Fred" 5
Person "Fred" 5 :: Person
Prelude> let (Person _ age) = (Person "Fred" 5) in age
5
```

With records:

```
data Person = Person { name :: String, age :: Int } derivin
Prelude> Person {name="Fred", age=5}
Person {name = "Fred", age = 5}
Prelude> age Person {name="Fred", age=5}
5
```

Records (2/2)

Trouble in paradise. There is a serious namespace issue:

```
data Person = Person { name :: String, age :: Int }
data Company = Company { name :: String, revenue :: Int }
```

When we compile:

```
 $ ghc -Wall ./test.hs
[1 of 1] Compiling Main             ( test.hs, test.o )

test.hs:93:26: error:
    Multiple declarations of ‘name’
    Declared at: test.hs:92:24
                 test.hs:93:26
```

Google “haskell record problem” to learn more about the workarounds.

Typeclasses Revisited (1/6)

- Typeclasses were created to express "ad-hoc polymorphism," AKA, overloaded functions.
- They turned out to be nicer in many ways than those in Java or C++.
- I stole some great examples from Philip Wadler's talk at Microsoft. He implemented typeclasses for Haskell and generics for Java.

Typeclasses Revisited (2/6)

We want a generic function `max` so that we don't have to define it over and over again for different types. Let's write it naively in C++ using templates.

```
#include <iostream>

template<class T>
T max(T x, T y) {
    return x < y ? y : x;
}
```

Typeclasses Revisited (3/6)

```
#include <iostream>

template<class T>
T max(T x, T y) {
    return x < y ? y : x;
}

void main() {
    // 2
    std::cout << max<int>(1, 2) << std::endl; // 2
    // 'b' (on most machines)
    std::cout << max<char>('a', 'b')) << std::endl;
    const char* a = "zzz"; const char* b = "aaa";
    // ???
    std::cout << max<const char*>(a, b)) << std::endl;
    // It's "aaa"
}
```

Typeclasses Revisited (4/6)

Instead of C++ templates, let's try it using Haskell typeclasses.

```haskell
class Ord a where
    (<) :: a -> a -> Bool

instance Ord Int where
    (<) = primitiveLessInt

instance Ord Char where
    (<) = primitiveLessChar

max :: Ord a => a -> a -> a
max x y = if x < y then y else x
```

Typeclasses Revisited (5/6)

List of `Char`? No problem. Just add:

```
instance Ord String where
    []   < []         = False
    []   < blst       = True
    alst < []         = False
    (a:as) < (b:bs)
        | a < b       = True
        | b < a       = False
        | otherwise   = as < bs
```

Typeclasses Revisited (6/6)

But we can go deeper. `String` is just `[Char]`. `Char` already implements `Ord`. What if we abstracted this?

```haskell
-- Instead of this tautology
Ord Char => [Char]
-- Let's say
Ord a => [a]

instance Ord a => Ord [a] where
    [] < []                    = False
    [] < y:ys                  = True
    x:xs < []                  = False
    x:xs < y:ys | x < y        = True
                | y < x        = False
                | otherwise = xs < ys
```

Now we can handle comparisons with any level of list nesting.

The Maybe Type

```haskell
data Maybe a = Just a | Nothing

Just (5 :: Int) :: Maybe Int
Nothing :: Maybe a

addMaybe :: Int -> Maybe Int -> Int
addMaybe (x (Just y)) = x + y
addMaybe (x Nothing) = x

addMaybe 5 (Just 3)  -- 8
addMaybe 5 (Nothing) -- 5
```

Functors Introduction (1/2)

Functors are essentially types that define `fmap`, as follows:

```
class Functor f where
    fmap :: (a -> b) -> f a -> f b
```

`fmap` takes a function that maps from `a` to `b`. It `lifts` the function so that it can operate on the *argument* of a value constructor `f`. That is, `fmap` gives us a function that can take `f a` and return `f b`!

Functors Introduction (2/2)

Additionally, functors must also satisfy some rules known as the functor laws. Namely,

```haskell
-- functor identity law
fmap id = id

-- functor composition law
fmap (f . g) = fmap f . fmap g
```

We don't have time to go over these in detail, but the motivation behind supporting these laws is that they're necessary to reduce complexity by defining specific but still "small" behavior.

The Maybe Functor

The `Maybe` functor is defined as follows:

```
instance Functor Maybe where
    fmap f (Just x) = Just (f x)
    fmap f Nothing = Nothing
```

Usage example:

```
Prelude> fmap (+1) $ Just 5
Just 6
Prelude> fmap (+1) $ Nothing
Nothing
Prelude> fmap (\x -> x^x) $ Just 10
Just 10000000000
Prelude> fmap (\x -> x^x) $ Nothing
Nothing
```

Interview Questions: Select Permutations (1/2)

```haskell
-- Given a string and list of case-switching characters,
-- return all versions of the string that can be formed
-- by toggling the case-switching characters.
-- Inputs will be lowercase.
--
-- "test", ['s']      -> ["test", "teSt"]
-- "test", ['e', 's'] -> ["test", "teSt", "tEst", "tESt",
import Data.Char (toLower, toUpper)

data Token = Normal Char | Switching Char deriving Show

tokenize :: String -> [Char] -> [Token]
tokenize str lst = map toToken str
  where toToken x = if elem x lst
                      then Switching x
                      else Normal x
```

Interview Questions: Select Permutations (2/2)

```haskell
generate :: String -> [Char] -> [String]
generate s switchList = generate' reversedTokens []
  where reversedTokens = reverse $ tokenize s switchList

generate' :: [Token] -> [Char] -> [String]
generate' []     current = [current]
generate' (r:rs) current = case r of
  Switching (ch) -> (generate' rs $ (toLower ch):current)
                 ++ (generate' rs $ (toUpper ch):current)
  Normal    (ch) -> (generate' rs $ ch:current)

main :: IO ()
main = do
  putStrLn $ show $ generate "test" ['s', 'e', 't']
-- Output:
-- ["test","Test","tEst","TEst","teSt","TeSt","tESt",
--  "TESt","tesT","TesT","tEsT","TEsT","teST","TeST",
--  "tEST","TEST"]
```

Interview Questions: Check Leading Ones (1/3)

```haskell
-- Write a program that takes a byte array message
-- and integer count as inputs, and returns true if
-- there are at least that many leading ones in the
-- message, false otherwise.

-- Messages beginning with the two bytes 1 1 1 1 1 1 1 1
-- / 1 0 0 0 0 0 0 0 have nine leading ones.
--
-- Messages beginning with the byte 1 1 1 0 1 0 0 0
-- have three leading ones.

import Data.List
import Data.Bits
import Data.Word
import qualified Data.ByteString as BS
```

Interview Questions: Check Leading Ones (2/3)

```haskell
-- Create a list: [(255,8),(254,7),(252,6),(248,5),...]
byteAList :: [(Word8, Int)]
byteAList = map makeMaskPair [0..7]
    where makeMaskPair x = ((shift 0xFF x) .&. 0xFF, 8-x)

-- Count how many leading ones the Word8 b has
countByteLeadingOnes :: Word8 -> Int
countByteLeadingOnes b = case find match byteAList of
        Nothing -> 0
        Just (_, y) -> y
    where match (x, _) = x .&. b == x
```

Interview Questions: Check Leading Ones (3/3)

```haskell
-- Determines if the bytestring bs has
-- at least n leading ones
hasLeadingOnes :: Int -> BS.ByteString -> Bool
hasLeadingOnes n bs = hasLeadingOnes' n bs 0

hasLeadingOnes' :: Int -> BS.ByteString -> Int -> Bool
hasLeadingOnes' n bs count = case BS.uncons bs of
    Nothing -> count >= n
    Just (b, bs') -> hasLeadingOnes' n bs' newCount
        where currentCount = countByteLeadingOnes b
              newCount = currentCount + newCount
```

Where to go from here

- Haskell Book by Chris Allen `http://haskellbook.com/`
- Learn You a Haskell by Miran Lipovača, `http://learnyouahaskell.com`
- Gentle Introduction To Haskell, version 98 by Paul Hudak, John Peterson, and Joseph Fasel, `https://www.haskell.org/tutorial/`
- Real World Haskell by Bryan O'Sullivan, `http://book.realworldhaskell.org/`
- An emporium of resources on the Haskell wiki: `https://wiki.haskell.org/Learning_Haskell`

Video learning materials

- Functional Programming Fundamentals by Dr. Erik Meijer (Video Lectures) https://channel9.msdn.com/Series/C9-Lectures-Erik-Meijer-Functional-Programming-Fundamen
- Haskell Course Taught by Philip Wadler, https://www.youtube.com/watch?v=AOl2y5uW0mA&list=PLtRG9GLtNcHBv4cuh2w1cz5VsgY6adoc3
- Adventure with Types in Haskell by Simon Peyton Jones, https://www.youtube.com/watch?v=6COvD8oynmI
- Haskell is Not For Production and Other Tales by Katie Miller, https://www.youtube.com/watch?v=mlTO510zO78

Resources to learn about monads (1/2)

There are so many monad tutorials online, so I'll only list a few that I felt really helped me. Your learning style might be different, so please check out many of them! However, here's some ground advice that could really help your venture:

- Know how to define typeclasses
- Be comfortable with type and value constructors and how they interact with functions and typeclasses
- Learn functors, applicative functors, and monoids first. LYAH will go over these beforehand.
- If you just need to *use* (as opposed to construct) a monad, you don't need to fully understand it.

Resources to learn about monads (2/2)

- Read "What is a Monad?" asked by Peter Mortensen on StackOverflow for a variety of good answers, `https://stackoverflow.com/questions/44965/what-is-a-monad`
- Start with Learn You a Haskell by Miran Lipovača, `http://learnyouahaskell.com`
- My personal favorite explanation after somewhat grasping the concept was You Could Have Invented Monads! by sigfpe. The practice problems were immensely helpful in consolidating my knowledge, `http://blog.sigfpe.com/2006/08/you-could-have-invented-monads-and.html`
- There are so many monad tutorials that Haskell Wiki gave it a whole section called "Monad tutorials timeline" with dozens of them from over the years, `https://wiki.haskell.org/Monad_tutorials_timeline`

References (1/2)

These information sources were heavily leaned on for amazing examples, explanations, and more found in these slides.

- Learn You a Haskell, Miran Lipovača, `http://learnyouahaskell.com`
- Glasgow Haskell Compiler, `https://www.haskell.org/ghc/`
- “Haskell Type vs Data Constructor”, kqr on StackOverflow, `https://stackoverflow.com/questions/18204308/haskell-type-vs-data-constructor`
- “Haskell function composition (.) and function application ($) idioms: correct use”, ellisbben on StackOverflow, `https://stackoverflow.com/questions/3030675/haskell-function-composition-and-function-application-`

References (2/2)

(continued)

- “Faith, Evolution, and Programming Languages: from Haskell to Java”, Philip Wadler, `https://www.youtube.com/watch?v=NZeDRs6snm0`
- “How to Learn Haskell in Less Than 5 Years”, Chris Allen, `https://www.youtube.com/watch?v=Bg9ccYzMbxc`
- “Gentle Introduction To Haskell, version 98”, Paul Hudak, John Peterson, Joseph Fasel, `https://www.haskell.org/tutorial/`
- “Algebraic data type”, Haskell Wiki, `https://wiki.haskell.org/Algebraic_data_type`
- ECMAScript Pattern Matching Proposal, `https://github.com/tc39/proposal-pattern-matching`

EOF