

COMP3012/G53CMP: Lecture 7

A Versatile Design Pattern: Monads

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Perspective (2)

- Solution: The **Visitor** pattern (or **double dispatch**):
 - Allows operations to be defined separately from data classes and in one place.
 - Allows operations to be defined by simple “pattern matching” (case analysis).
- Not entirely trivial: takes a lecture to explain. See:

http://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Visitor_pattern

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Perspective (1)

- Design Pattern [Wikipedia]:
[A] design pattern is a general reusable solution to a commonly occurring problem within a given context in software design.
- Example: In an OO Language like Java or C#, operations on data are tied to classes. Thus:
 - Cannot (directly) add a new operation on data without changing **all** involved classes.
 - The code for an operation gets **spread out** across all involved classes.

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This Lecture

Functional languages provides separation between operations and data, and typically pattern matching too, “for free”.

However, handling **effects** in a **pure** language requires work because, by definition, there are no implicit effects in a pure language.

This lecture: A design pattern for effects.

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A Blessing and a Curse

- The **BIG** advantage of pure functional programming is
“everything is explicit;”
i.e., flow of data manifest, no side effects.
Makes it a lot easier to understand large programs.
- The **BIG** problem with pure functional programming is
“everything is explicit.”
Can really add a lot of clutter, especially in large programs.

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Example: LTXL Identification (2)

Goals of LTXL identification phase:

- Annotate each applied identifier occurrence with attributes of the corresponding variable declaration.
I.e., map unannotated AST `Exp ()` to annotated AST `Exp Attr`.
- Report conflicting variable definitions and undefined variables.

```
identification ::  
  Exp () -> (Exp Attr, [ErrorMsg])
```

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Example: LTXL Identification (1)

`enterVar` inserts a variable at the given scope level and of the given type into an environment.

- Check that no variable with same name has been defined at the same scope level.
- If not, the new variable is entered, and the **resulting environment** is returned.
- Otherwise an **error message** is returned.

```
enterVar :: Id -> Int -> Type -> Env  
          -> Either Env ErrorMsg
```

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Example: LTXL Identification (3)

```
identDefs l env [] = ([], env, [])  
identDefs l env ((i,t,e) : ds) =  
  ((i,t,e') : ds', env'', ms1++ms2++ms3)  
where  
  (e', ms1) = identAux l env e  
  (env'', ms2) =  
    case enterVar i l t env of  
      Left env' -> (env', [])  
      Right m -> (env, [m])  
  (ds', env'', ms3) =  
    identDefs l env' ds
```

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Example: LTXL Identification (4)

Error checking and collection of error messages arguably added a lot of clutter. The **core** of the algorithm is this:

```
identDefs l env [] = ([], env)
identDefs l env ((i,t,e) : ds) =
  ((i,t,e') : ds', env'')
  where
    e'          = identAux l env e
    env'        = enterVar i l t env
    (ds', env'') = identDefs l env' ds
```

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Making the evaluator safe (1)

```
safeEval :: Exp -> Maybe Integer
safeEval (Lit n) = Just n
safeEval (Add e1 e2) =
  case safeEval e1 of
    Nothing -> Nothing
    Just n1 ->
      case safeEval e2 of
        Nothing -> Nothing
        Just n2 -> Just (n1 + n2)
```

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Example: A Simple Evaluator

```
data Exp = Lit Integer
         | Add Exp Exp
         | Sub Exp Exp
         | Mul Exp Exp
         | Div Exp Exp
```

```
eval :: Exp -> Integer
eval (Lit n)      = n
eval (Add e1 e2) = eval e1 + eval e2
eval (Sub e1 e2) = eval e1 - eval e2
eval (Mul e1 e2) = eval e1 * eval e2
eval (Div e1 e2) = eval e1 `div` eval e2
```

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Making the evaluator safe (2)

```
safeEval (Sub e1 e2) =
  case safeEval e1 of
    Nothing -> Nothing
    Just n1 ->
      case safeEval e2 of
        Nothing -> Nothing
        Just n2 -> Just (n1 - n2)
```

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Making the evaluator safe (3)

```
safeEval (Mul e1 e2) =
  case safeEval e1 of
    Nothing -> Nothing
    Just n1 ->
      case safeEval e2 of
        Nothing -> Nothing
        Just n2 -> Just (n1 * n2)
```

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Any common pattern?

Clearly a lot of code duplication!
Can we factor out a common pattern?

We note:

- Sequencing of evaluations.
- If one evaluation fail, fail overall.
- Otherwise, make result available to following evaluations.

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Making the evaluator safe (4)

```
safeEval (Div e1 e2) =
  case safeEval e1 of
    Nothing -> Nothing
    Just n1 ->
      case safeEval e2 of
        Nothing -> Nothing
        Just n2 ->
          if n2 == 0
            then Nothing
            else Just (n1 `div` n2)
```

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Example: Numbering trees

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

```
numberTree :: Tree a -> Tree Int
```

```
numberTree t = fst (ntAux t 0)
```

```
where
```

```
ntAux (Leaf _) n = (Leaf n, n+1)
```

```
ntAux (Node t1 t2) n =
```

```
  let (t1', n') = ntAux t1 n
```

```
  in let (t2', n'') = ntAux t2 n'
```

```
  in (Node t1' t2', n'')
```

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Observations

- Repetitive pattern: threading a counter through a **sequence** of tree numbering **computations**.
- It is very easy to pass on the wrong version of the counter!

Can we do better?

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Maybe viewed as a computation

Successful computation of a value:

```
mbReturn :: a -> Maybe a
mbReturn = Just
```

Failing computation:

```
mbFail :: Maybe a
mbFail = Nothing
```

Sequencing of possibly failing computations:

```
mbSeq :: Maybe a -> (a -> Maybe b) -> Maybe b
mbSeq ma f = case ma of
    Nothing -> Nothing
    Just a   -> f a
```

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Maybe viewed as a computation (1)

- Consider a value of type `Maybe a` as denoting a **computation** of a value of type `a` that **may fail**.
- When sequencing possibly failing computations, the only option in general is to fail overall once a subcomputation fails.
- I.e. **failure is an effect**, implicitly affecting subsequent computations.
- Let's adopt names reflecting our intentions.

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Sequencing evaluations (1)

```
safeEval (Add e1 e2) =
  case safeEval e1 of
    Nothing -> Nothing
    Just n1  ->
      case safeEval e2 of
        Nothing -> Nothing
        Just n2  -> Just (n1 + n2)

mbSeq ma f =
  case ma of
    Nothing -> Nothing
    Just a   -> f a
```

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Sequencing evaluations (2)

```
safeEval :: Exp -> Maybe Integer
safeEval (Lit n) = mbReturn n
safeEval (Add e1 e2) =
  safeEval e1 `mbSeq` \n1 ->
  safeEval e2 `mbSeq` \n2 ->
  mbReturn (n1 + n2)
safeEval (Sub e1 e2) =
  safeEval e1 `mbSeq` \n1 ->
  safeEval e2 `mbSeq` \n2 ->
  mbReturn (n1 - n2)
```

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Inline mbSeq (1)

Let us check that nothing really changed by inlining `mbSeq` and `mbReturn`:

```
safeEval (Add e1 e2) =
  safeEval e1 `mbSeq` \n1 ->
  safeEval e2 `mbSeq` \n2 ->
  mbReturn (n1 + n2)
=
safeEval (Add e1 e2) =
  case (safeEval e1) of
    Nothing -> Nothing
    Just a -> (\n1 -> safeEval e2 ...) a
```

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Sequencing evaluations (4)

```
safeEval (Mul e1 e2) =
  safeEval e1 `mbSeq` \n1 ->
  safeEval e2 `mbSeq` \n2 ->
  mbReturn (n1 * n2)
safeEval (Div e1 e2) =
  safeEval e1 `mbSeq` \n1 ->
  safeEval e2 `mbSeq` \n2 ->
  if n2 == 0
  then mbFail
  else mbReturn (n1 `div` n2)
```

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Inline mbSeq (2)

```
=
safeEval (Add e1 e2) =
  case (safeEval e1) of
    Nothing -> Nothing
    Just n1 -> safeEval e2 `mbSeq` (\n2 -> ...)
=
safeEval (Add e1 e2) =
  case (safeEval e1) of
    Nothing -> Nothing
    Just n1 -> case safeEval e2 of
      Nothing -> Nothing
      Just a -> (\n2 -> ...) a
```

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Inline mbSeq (3)

```
=
safeEval (Add e1 e2) =
  case (safeEval e1) of
    Nothing -> Nothing
    Just n1 -> case safeEval e2 of
      Nothing -> Nothing
      Just n2 -> (Just n1 + n2)
```

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Stateful Computations (2)

- When sequencing stateful computations, the resulting state should be passed on to the next computation.
- I.e. **state updating is an effect**, implicitly affecting subsequent computations. (As we would expect.)

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Stateful Computations (1)

- A **stateful computation** consumes a state and returns a result along with a possibly updated state.
- The following type synonym captures this idea:

```
type S a = Int -> (a, Int)
```

(Only `Int` state for the sake of simplicity.)
- A value (function) of type `S a` can now be viewed as denoting a stateful computation computing a value of type `a`.

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Stateful Computations (3)

Computation of a value without changing the state:

```
sReturn :: a -> S a
sReturn a = \n -> (a, n)
```

Sequencing of stateful computations:

```
sSeq :: S a -> (a -> S b) -> S b
sSeq sa f = \n ->
  let (a, n') = sa n
  in f a n'
```

Reading and incrementing the state:

```
sInc :: S Int
sInc = \n -> (n, n + 1)
```

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Numbering trees revisited

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

numberTree :: Tree a -> Tree Int
numberTree t = fst (ntAux t 0)
  where
    ntAux (Leaf _) =
      sInc `sSeq` \n -> sReturn (Leaf n)
    ntAux (Node t1 t2) =
      ntAux t1 `sSeq` \t1' ->
      ntAux t2 `sSeq` \t2' ->
      sReturn (Node t1' t2')
```

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Comparison of the examples

- Both examples characterized by sequencing of effectful computations.
- Both examples could be neatly structured by introducing identically structured abstractions that encapsulated the effects:
 - A type denoting computations
 - A combinator for computing a value without any effect
 - A combinator for sequencing computations
- In fact, both examples are instances of the general notion of a **MONAD**.

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Observations

- The “plumbing” has been captured by the abstractions.
- In particular, there is no longer any risk of “passing on” the wrong version of the state!

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Monads in Functional Programming

A monad is represented by:

- A type constructor
 $M :: * \rightarrow *$
 $M\ T$ represents computations of a value of type T .
- A polymorphic function
 $return :: a \rightarrow M\ a$
for lifting a value to a computation.
- A polymorphic function
 $(>>=) :: M\ a \rightarrow (a \rightarrow M\ b) \rightarrow M\ b$
for sequencing computations.

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Monads in Haskell

In Haskell, the notion of a monad is captured by a **Type Class**:

```
class Monad m where
  return :: a -> m a
  (>>=)  :: m a -> (a -> m b) -> m b
  fail   :: String -> m a
  fail s = error s
```

This allows the names of the common functions to be overloaded, and the sharing of derived definitions.

Note: Simplified account: Not all methods shown and `Applicative` is a superclass of `Monad`.

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The do-notation

Haskell provides convenient syntax for programming with monads:

```
do
  a <- exp1
  b <- exp2
  return exp3
```

is syntactic sugar for

```
exp1 >>= \a ->
exp2 >>= \b ->
return exp3
```

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The Maybe monad in Haskell

```
instance Monad Maybe where
  return = Just

Nothing >>= _ = Nothing
(Just x) >>= f = f x

fail s = Nothing
```

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The HMTC Diagnostics Monad

```
D :: * -> * -- Instances: Monad.
emitInfoD :: SrcPos -> String -> D ()
emitWngD  :: SrcPos -> String -> D ()
emitErrD  :: SrcPos -> String -> D ()
failD     :: SrcPos -> String -> D a
failNoReasonD :: D a
failIfErrorsD :: D ()
stopD      :: D a
runD      :: D a -> (Maybe a, [DMsg])
```

(Roughly: The actual HMTC impl. is more refined.)

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Identification Revisited (1)

Recall:

```
enterVar :: Id -> Int -> Type -> Env
          -> Either Env String
```

Let's define a version using the Diagnostics monad:

```
enterVarD :: Id -> Int -> Type -> Env ->D Env
enterVarD i l t env =
  case enterVar i l t env of
    Left env' -> return env'
    Right m   -> do
      emitErrD NoSrcPos m
      return env
```

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Identification Revisited (2)

Now we can define a monadic version of
identDefs:

```
identDefs :: Int -> Env -> [(Id,Type,Exp ())]
           -> D ([(Id,Type,Exp Attr)], Env)
identDefs l env [] = return ([], env)
identDefs l env ((i,t,e) : ds) = do
  e'      <- identAux l env e
  env'    <- enterVarD i l t env
  (ds', env'') <- identDefs l env' ds
  return ((i,t,e') : ds', env'')
```

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Identification Revisited (3)

Compare with the “core” identified earlier!

```
identDefs l env [] = ([], env)
identDefs l env ((i,t,e) : ds) =
  ((i,t,e') : ds', env'')
  where
    e'      = identAux l env e
    env'    = enterVar i l t env
    (ds', env'') = identDefs l env' ds
```

The monadic version is very close to ideal,
without sacrificing functionality, clarity, or
pureness!

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