

COMP4075: Lecture 8

Introduction to Monads

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COMP4075: Lecture 8 – p.1/37

Conundrum

“*Shall I be pure or impure?*” (Wadler, 1992)

- Absence of effects
 - facilitates understanding and reasoning
 - makes lazy evaluation viable
 - allows choice of reduction order, e.g. parallel
 - enhances modularity and reuse.
- Effects (state, exceptions, ...) can
 - help making code concise
 - facilitate maintenance
 - improve the efficiency.

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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 add a lot of clutter, make it hard to maintain code

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Answer to Conundrum: Monads (1)

- Monads bridges the gap: allow effectful programming in a pure setting.
- Key idea: **Computational types**: an object of type MA denotes a **computation** of an object of type A .
- **Thus we shall be both pure and impure, whatever takes our fancy!**
- Monads originated in Category Theory.
- Adapted by
 - Moggi for structuring denotational semantics
 - Wadler for structuring functional programs

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Answer to Conundrum: Monads (2)

Monads

- promote **disciplined** use of effects since the type reflects which effects can occur;
- allow great **flexibility** in tailoring the effect structure to precise needs;
- support **changes** to the effect structure with minimal impact on the overall program structure;
- allow integration into a pure setting of **real** effects such as
 - I/O
 - mutable state.

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Example 1: 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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This Lecture

Pragmatic introduction to monads:

- Effectful computations
- Identifying a common pattern
- Monads as a **design pattern**

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Making the Evaluator Safe (1)

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

```
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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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 (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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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 (or **computations**).
- If one evaluation fails, fail overall.
- Otherwise, make result available to following evaluations.

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Sequencing Evaluations

```
evalSeq :: Maybe Integer
         → (Integer → Maybe Integer)
         → Maybe Integer
evalSeq ma f = case ma of
                Nothing → Nothing
                Just a  → f a
```

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Exercise 1: Solution

```
safeEval :: Exp → Maybe Integer
safeEval (Add e1 e2) =
  evalSeq (safeEval e1)
           (λn1 → evalSeq (safeEval e2)
                    (λn2 → Just (n1 + n2)))
```

or

```
safeEval :: Exp → Maybe Integer
safeEval (Add e1 e2) =
  safeEval e1 'evalSeq' λn1 →
  safeEval e2 'evalSeq' λn2 →
  Just (n1 + n2)
```

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Exercise 1: Refactoring *safeEval*

Rewrite *safeEval*, case *Add*, using *evalSeq*:

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

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

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Refactored Safe Evaluator (1)

```
safeEval :: Exp → Maybe Integer
safeEval (Lit n) = Just n
safeEval (Add e1 e2) =
  safeEval e1 'evalSeq' λn1 →
  safeEval e2 'evalSeq' λn2 →
  Just (n1 + n2)
safeEval (Sub e1 e2) =
  safeEval e1 'evalSeq' λn1 →
  safeEval e2 'evalSeq' λn2 →
  Just (n1 - n2)
```

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Refactored Safe Evaluator (2)

```
safeEval (Mul e1 e2) =
  safeEval e1 'evalSeq' λn1 →
  safeEval e2 'evalSeq' λn2 →
  Just (n1 * n2)
safeEval (Div e1 e2) =
  safeEval e1 'evalSeq' λn1 →
  safeEval e2 'evalSeq' λn2 →
  if n2 ≡ 0
  then Nothing
  else Just (n1 'div' n2)
```

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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, a natural choice is to fail overall once a subcomputation fails.
- I.e. **failure is an effect**, implicitly affecting subsequent computations.
- Let's generalize and adopt names reflecting our intentions.

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Maybe Viewed as a Computation (2)

Successful computation of a value:

```
mbReturn :: a → Maybe a
mbReturn = Just
```

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 (3)

Failing computation:

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

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The Safe Evaluator Revisited

```
safeEval :: Exp → Maybe Integer
safeEval (Lit n) = mbReturn n
safeEval (Add e1 e2) =
  safeEval e1 'mbSeq' λn1 →
  safeEval e2 'mbSeq' λn2 →
  mbReturn (n1 + n2)
...
safeEval (Div e1 e2) =
  safeEval e1 'mbSeq' λn1 →
  safeEval e2 'mbSeq' λn2 →
  if n2 ≡ 0 then mbFail else mbReturn (n1 'div' n2)))
```

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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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Example 2: 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 :: Tree a → Int → (Tree Int, Int)
  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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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 (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 (4)

Reading and incrementing the state
(For ref.: $S\ a = Int \rightarrow (a, Int)$):

$$sInc :: S\ Int$$
$$sInc = \lambda n \rightarrow (n, n + 1)$$

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Stateful Computations (3)

Computation of a value without changing the state (For ref.: $S\ a = Int \rightarrow (a, Int)$):

$$sReturn :: a \rightarrow S\ a$$
$$sReturn\ a = \lambda n \rightarrow (a, n)$$

Sequencing of stateful computations:

$$sSeq :: S\ a \rightarrow (a \rightarrow S\ b) \rightarrow S\ b$$
$$sSeq\ sa\ f = \lambda n \rightarrow$$
$$\quad \mathbf{let}\ (a, n') = sa\ n$$
$$\quad \mathbf{in}\ f\ a\ n'$$

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Numbering trees revisited

data $Tree\ a = Leaf\ a \mid Node\ (Tree\ a)\ (Tree\ a)$

$$numberTree :: Tree\ a \rightarrow Tree\ Int$$
$$numberTree\ t = fst\ (ntAux\ t\ 0)$$

where

$$ntAux :: Tree\ a \rightarrow S\ (Tree\ Int)$$
$$ntAux\ (Leaf\ _) =$$
$$\quad sInc\ 'sSeq'\ \lambda n \rightarrow sReturn\ (Leaf\ n)$$
$$ntAux\ (Node\ t1\ t2) =$$
$$\quad ntAux\ t1\ 'sSeq'\ \lambda t1' \rightarrow$$
$$\quad ntAux\ t2\ 'sSeq'\ \lambda t2' \rightarrow$$
$$\quad sReturn\ (Node\ t1'\ t2')$$

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Observations

- The “plumbing” has been captured by the abstractions.
- In particular:
 - counter no longer manipulated directly
 - no longer any risk of “passing on” the wrong version of the counter!

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Monads in Functional Programming

A monad is represented by:

- A type constructor

$$M :: * \rightarrow *$$

$M T$ represents computations of value of type T .

- A polymorphic function

$$\text{return} :: a \rightarrow M a$$

for lifting a value to a computation.

- A polymorphic function

$$(\gg) :: M a \rightarrow (a \rightarrow M b) \rightarrow M b$$

for sequencing computations.

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Comparison of the examples

- Both examples characterized by sequencing of effectful computations.
- Both examples could be neatly structured by introducing:
 - A type denoting computations
 - A function constructing an effect-free computation of a value
 - A function constructing a computation by sequencing computations
- In fact, both examples are instances of the general notion of a **MONAD**.

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Exercise 2: *join* and *fmap*

Equivalently, the notion of a monad can be captured through the following functions:

$$\text{return} :: a \rightarrow M a$$

$$\text{join} :: (M (M a)) \rightarrow M a$$

$$\text{fmap} :: (a \rightarrow b) \rightarrow M a \rightarrow M b$$

join “flattens” a computation, *fmap* “lifts” a function to map computations to computations.

Define *join* and *fmap* in terms of (\gg) (and *return*), and (\gg) in terms of *join* and *fmap*.

$$(\gg) :: M a \rightarrow (a \rightarrow M b) \rightarrow M b$$

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Exercise 2: Solution

$$\text{join} :: M (M a) \rightarrow M a$$
$$\text{join } mm = mm \gg= id$$
$$\text{fmap} :: (a \rightarrow b) \rightarrow M a \rightarrow M b$$
$$\text{fmap } f m = m \gg= \text{return} \circ f$$
$$(\gg=) :: M a \rightarrow (a \rightarrow M b) \rightarrow M b$$
$$m \gg= f = \text{join } (\text{fmap } f m)$$

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Exercise 3: The Identity Monad

The **Identity Monad** can be understood as representing **effect-free** computations:

$$\text{type } I a = a$$

1. Provide suitable definitions of *return* and $(\gg=)$.
2. Verify that the monad laws hold for your definitions.

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Monad laws

Additionally, the following **laws** must be satisfied:

$$\text{return } x \gg= f = f x$$
$$m \gg= \text{return} = m$$
$$(m \gg= f) \gg= g = m \gg= (\lambda x \rightarrow f x \gg= g)$$

I.e., *return* is the right and left identity for $(\gg=)$, and $(\gg=)$ is associative.

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Exercise 3: Solution

$$\text{return} :: a \rightarrow I a$$
$$\text{return} = id$$
$$(\gg=) :: I a \rightarrow (a \rightarrow I b) \rightarrow I b$$
$$m \gg= f = f m$$

(Or: $(\gg=) = \text{flip } (\$)$)

Simple calculations verify the laws, e.g.:

$$\text{return } x \gg= f = id x \gg= f$$
$$= x \gg= f$$
$$= f x$$

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Reading

- Philip Wadler. The Essence of Functional Programming. *Proceedings of the 19th ACM Symposium on Principles of Programming Languages (POPL'92)*, 1992.
- Nick Benton, John Hughes, Eugenio Moggi. Monads and Effects. In *International Summer School on Applied Semantics 2000*, Caminha, Portugal, 2000.
- *All About Monads*.
http://www.haskell.org/all_about_monads