MGS 2009: FUN Lecture 3 Monads

Henrik Nilsson

University of Nottingham, UK

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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

Conundrum

"Shall I be pure or impure?" (Wadler, 1992)

- Absence of effects
 - makes programs easier to understand and reason about
 - makes lazy evaluation viable
 - enhances modularity and reuse.
- Effects (state, exceptions, ...) can
 - help making code concise
 - facilitate maintenance
 - improve the efficiency.

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Example: A Compiler Fragment (1)

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

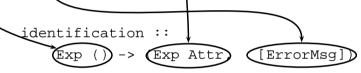
- Check that no variable with same name has been defined at the same scope level.
- If not, the new variable is entered, and the resulting environment is returned.
- Otherwise an error message is returned.

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

Example: A Compiler Fragment (2)

Goals of the *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.



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Example: A Compiler Fragment (3)

Functions that do the real work:

Example: A Compiler Fragment (4)

```
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: A Compiler Fragment (5)

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

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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.

This Lecture

Pragmatic introduction to monads:

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

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Example 1: A Simple Evaluator

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)
```

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)
```

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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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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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

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
```

Exercise 1: Solution

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Aside: Scope Rules of λ -abstractions

The scope rules of λ -abstractions are such that parentheses can be omitted:

```
safeEval :: Exp -> Maybe Integer
...
safeEval (Add e1 e2) =
    safeEval e1 'evalSeq' \n1 ->
    safeEval e2 'evalSeq' \n2 ->
    Just (n1 + n2)
...
```

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Refactored Safe Evaluator (1)

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

Refactored Safe Evaluator (2)

```
safeEval (Mul e1 e2) =
    safeEval e1 'evalSeq' \n1 ->
    safeEval e2 'evalSeq' \n2 ->
    Just (n1 * n2)
safeEval (Div e1 e2) =
    safeEval e1 'evalSeq' \n1 ->
    safeEval e2 'evalSeq' \n2 ->
    if n2 == 0
    then Nothing
    else Just (n1 'div' n2)
```

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Inlining evalseq (1)

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

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Inlining evalSeq (2)

Inlining evalSeq (3)

Good excercise: verify the other cases.

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' \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)))
```

Example 2: Numbering Trees

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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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.)

Stateful Computations (3)

Computation of a value without changing the state:

```
sReturn :: a \rightarrow S a
sReturn a = \n \rightarrow (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'
```

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Stateful Computations (4)

Reading and incrementing the state:

```
sInc :: S Int

sInc = n \rightarrow (n, n + 1)
```

Numbering trees revisited

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

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!

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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Monads in Functional Programming

A monad is represented by:

A type constructor

```
M :: * -> *
```

 ${\,{\tt M}\,}$ T represents computations of a value of type ${\tt T}$.

A polymorphic function

```
return :: a -> M a
```

for lifting a value to a computation.

A polymorphic function

```
(>>=) :: M a -> (a \rightarrow M b) \rightarrow M b for sequencing computations.
```

Exercise 2: join and fmap

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

```
return :: a -> M a
join :: (M (M a)) -> M a
fmap :: (a -> b) -> (M a -> M b)
```

join "flattens" a computation, fmap "lifts" a function to map computations to computations.

Define join and fmap in terms of >>= (and return), and >>= in terms of join and fmap.

$$(>>=)$$
 :: M a -> $(a -> M b) -> M b$

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Exercise 2: Solution

```
join :: M (M a) -> M a
join mm = mm >>= id

fmap :: (a -> b) -> M a -> M b
fmap f m = m >>= \a -> return (f a)

Or:
fmap :: (a -> b) -> M a -> M b
fmap f m = m >>= return . f

(>>=) :: M a -> (a -> M b) -> M b
m >>= f = join (fmap f m)
```

Monad laws

Additionally, the following laws must be satisfied:

```
 \begin{array}{lll} \texttt{return} \; x >>= f &= f \; x \\ m >>= \texttt{return} &= m \\ (m >>= f) >>= g &= m >>= (\lambda x \rightarrow f \; x >>= g) \end{array}
```

I.e., return is the right and left identity for >>=, and >>= is associative.

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Exercise 3: The Identity Monad

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

```
type I a = a
```

- 1. Provide suitable definitions of return and >>=.
- Verify that the monad laws hold for your definitions.

Exercise 3: Solution

```
return :: a -> I a
return = id

(>>=) :: I a -> (a -> I b) -> I b
m >>= f = f m
-- or: (>>=) = flip ($)
```

Simple calculations verify the laws, e.g.:

return
$$x >>= f = id x >>= f$$

= $x >>= f$
= $f x$

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Monads in Category Theory (1)

The notion of a monad originated in Category Theory. There are several equivalent definitions (Benton, Hughes, Moggi 2000):

 Kleisli triple/triple in extension form: Most closely related to the >>= version:

A **Klesili triple** over a category \mathcal{C} is a triple $(T, \eta, \underline{\hspace{0.1cm}}^*)$, where $T: |\mathcal{C}| \to |\mathcal{C}|$, $\eta_A: A \to TA$ for $A \in |\mathcal{C}|$, $f^*: TA \to TB$ for $f: A \to TB$.

(Additionally, some laws must be satisfied.)

Monads in Category Theory (2)

 Monad/triple in monoid form: More akin to the join/fmap version:

A **monad** over a category $\mathcal C$ is a triple (T,η,μ) , where $T:\mathcal C\to\mathcal C$ is a functor, $\eta:\mathrm{id}_{\mathcal C}\dot{\to} T$ and $\mu:T^2\dot{\to} T$ are natural transformations.

(Additionally, some commuting diagrams must be satisfied.)

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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

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