COMP4075: Lecture 9

Monads in Haskell

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Monads in Haskell (2)

The Haskell monad class has two further methods with default definitions:

$$(\gg) :: m \ a \to m \ b \to m \ b$$

$$m \gg k = m \gg \lambda_- \to k$$

$$fail :: String \to m \ a$$

$$fail \ s = error \ s$$

(However, fail will likely be moved into a separate class *MonadFail* in the future.)

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The Monad Type Class Hierarhy (2)

For example, fmap can be defined in terms of \gg and *return*, demonstrating that a monad is a functor:

$$fmap \ f \ m = m \gg \lambda x \rightarrow return \ (f \ x)$$

A consequence of this class hierarchy is that to make some T an instance of Monad, an instance of T for both Functor and Applicative must also be provided.

Note: Not a mathematical necessity, but a result of how these notions are defined in Haskell at present. E.g. monads can be understood in isolation.

This Lecture

- Monads in Haskell
- The Haskell Monad Class Hierarchy
- Some Standard Monads and Library **Functions**

The Maybe Monad in Haskell

instance Monad Maybe where

$$return = Just$$
 $Nothing \gg _ = Nothing$
 $(Just \ x) \gg f = f \ x$

Applicative Functors (1)

An applicative functor is a functor with application, providing operations to:

- embed pure expressions (pure), and
- · sequence computations and combine their results (<*>)

```
class Functor f \Rightarrow Applicative f where
   pure :: a \rightarrow f a
   (\ll):: f(a \rightarrow b) \rightarrow fa \rightarrow fb
   (*>) :: f a \rightarrow f b \rightarrow f b
   (<*) :: f \ a \rightarrow f \ b \rightarrow f \ a
```

Monads in Haskell (1)

In Haskell, the notion of a monad is captured by a Type Class. In principle (but not quite from GHC 7.8 onwards):

```
class Monad m where
   return :: a \rightarrow m \ a
   (\gg) :: m \ a \rightarrow (a \rightarrow m \ b) \rightarrow m \ b
```

Allows names of the common functions to be overloaded and sharing of derived definitions.

The Monad Type Class Hierarhy (1)

Monads are mathematically related to two other notions:

- Functors
- Applicative Functors (or just Applicatives)

Every monad is an applicative functor, and every applicative functor (and thus monad) is a functor.

Class hierarchy:

```
class Functor\ f where . . .
class Functor f \Rightarrow Applicative f where . . .
class Applicative m \Rightarrow Monad \ m \ where \dots
```

Applicative Functors (2)

- Like monads, applicative functors is a notion of computation.
- The key difference is that the result of one computation is not made available to subsequent computations. As a result:
 - The **structure** of a computation is static.
 - Scope for running computations in parallel.
 - Whether the computations actually can be carried in parallel depends on what the specific effects of the applicative in question are.

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Applicative Functors (3)

Laws:

$$\begin{array}{rclcrcl} & pure \ id \ll > v & = & v \\ pure \ (\circ) \ll > u \ll > v \ll > w & = & u \ll > (v \ll > w) \\ & pure \ f \ll > pure \ x & = & pure \ (f \ x) \\ & u \ll > pure \ y & = & pure \ (\$ y) \ll > u \end{array}$$

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Default definitions:

```
u \gg v = pure (const id) \ll u \ll v
u \ll v = pure const \ll u \ll v
```

Instances of Alternative

instance Alternative [] where empty = [] (<|>) = (++)

instance Alternative Maybe where empty = Nothing Nothing <|> r = r l $<|> _ = l$

Example: Applicative Parser (3)

Instances of Applicative

instance Applicative [] where pure x = [x] $fs \ll s = [f \ x \mid f \leftarrow fs, x \leftarrow xs]$

instance Applicative Maybe where pure = Just $Just\ f \iff m = fmap\ f\ m$ $Nothing \iff _ = Nothing$

Example: Applicative Parser (1)

Applicative functors are frequently used in the context of parsing combinators. In fact, that is where their origin lies.

A *Parser* computation allows reading of input, fails if input cannot be parsed, and supports trying alternatives:

instance Applicative Parser where... instance Alternative Parser where...

Applicative Functors and Monads

A requirement is return = pure.

In fact, the *Monad* class provides a default definition of *return* defined that way:

class Applicative $m \Rightarrow Monad \ m$ where $return :: a \rightarrow m \ a$ return = pure $(\gg) :: m \ a \rightarrow (a \rightarrow m \ b) \rightarrow m \ b$

Class Alternative

The class *Alternative* is a monoid on applicative functors:

```
class Applicative f \Rightarrow Alternative f where empty :: f \ a (<|>) :: f \ a \rightarrow f \ a \rightarrow f \ a some :: f \ a \rightarrow f \ [a] many :: f \ a \rightarrow f \ [a] some \ v = pure \ (:) \ll v \ll many \ v many \ v = some \ v <|> pure \ []
```

<|> can be understood as "one or the other", some as "at least one", and many as "zero or more".

Example: Applicative Parser (2)

Syntax for a language fragment:

```
command → if expr then command else command
| begin { command ; } end
```

Abstract syntax:

Recognising terminals:

```
kwd, symb :: String \rightarrow Parser ()
```

Exercise: A State Monad in Haskell

Recall that a type $Int \to (a,Int)$ can be viewed as a state monad.

Haskell 2010 does not permit type synonyms to be instances of classes. Hence we have to define a new type:

```
\mathbf{newtype}\ S\ a = S\ \{\mathit{unS} :: (\mathit{Int} \to (a,\mathit{Int}))\}
```

Thus:
$$unS :: S \ a \rightarrow (Int \rightarrow (a, Int))$$

Provide a Functor, Applicative, and Monad instance for S.

Solution: Functor Instance

instance Functor S where $fmap \ f \ sa = S \ \$ \ \lambda s \rightarrow$ let $(a,s') = unS \ sa \ s$ in $(f \ a,s')$

The List Monad

Computation with many possible results, "nondeterminism":

instance Monad [] where

return
$$a = [a]$$

 $m \gg f = concat (map f m)$
fail $s = []$

Example:

Result:

$$\begin{aligned} x \leftarrow [1,2] & & & & & & & & & \\ y \leftarrow ['\mathtt{a'},'\mathtt{b'}] & & & & & & & & \\ & & & & & & & & \\ & & & & & & & \\ & & & & & & & \\ & & & & & & & \\ & & & & & & & \\ & & & & & \\ & & & & & & \\ & & & & & & \\ & & & & & & \\ & & & & & \\ & & & & & & \\ & & & & & \\ & & & & & & \\ & & & & & \\ & & & & & \\ & & & & & \\ & & & & & \\ & & & & & \\ & & & & & \\ & & & & & \\ & & & & & \\ & & & & \\ & & & & \\ & & & & \\ & & & & \\ & & & & \\ & & & & \\ & & & & \\ & & & & \\ & & & & \\ & & & & \\ & & & & \\ & & & & \\ & & & & \\ & & & & \\ & & & \\ & & & & \\ & & & \\ & & & & \\ & & & \\ & & & & \\ & & \\ & & & \\ & & & \\ & & \\ & & \\ & & \\ & & \\ & & \\ & & \\ & & \\ & & \\$$

Monad-specific Operations (2)

Typical operations on a state monad:

set :: Int
$$\rightarrow$$
 S ()
set $a = S \ (\lambda_{-} \rightarrow ((), a))$
get :: S Int
get = S $(\lambda s \rightarrow (s, s))$

Moreover, need to "run" a computation. E.g.:

$$runS :: S \ a \to a$$

$$runS \ m = fst \ (unS \ m \ 0)$$

Solution: Applicative **Instance**

instance Applicative S where $pure \ a = S \$ \lambda s \rightarrow (a,s)$ $sf \ll sa = S \$ \lambda s \rightarrow$ let $(f,s') = unS \ sf \ s$ in $unS \ (fmap \ f \ sa) \ s'$

The Reader Monad

Computation in an environment:

instance
$$Monad\ ((\rightarrow)\ e)$$
 where $return\ a = const\ a$ $m \gg f = \lambda e \to f\ (m\ e)\ e$ $getEnv::((\rightarrow)\ e)\ e$ $getEnv = id$

The do-notation (1)

Haskell provides convenient syntax for programming with monads:

$$\begin{aligned} \mathbf{do} \\ a &\leftarrow exp_1 \\ b &\leftarrow exp_2 \\ return \ exp_3 \end{aligned}$$
 is syntactic sugar for

$$exp_1 \gg \lambda a \rightarrow exp_2 \gg \lambda b \rightarrow return \ exp_3$$

Note: a in scope in exp_2 , a and b in exp_3 .

Solution: *Monad* **Instance**

```
instance Monad\ S where m \gg f = S \ \$ \ \lambda s \rightarrow let (a,s') = unS \ m \ s in unS\ (f\ a)\ s' (Using the default definition return = pure.)
```

Monad-specific Operations (1)

To be useful, monads need to be equipped with additional operations specific to the effects in question. For example:

```
fail :: String \rightarrow Maybe \ a
fail := Nothing
catch :: Maybe \ a \rightarrow Maybe \ a \rightarrow Maybe \ a
m1 'catch' m2 =
case \ m1 of
Just \_ \rightarrow m1
Nothing \rightarrow m2
```

The do-notation (2)

Computations can be done solely for effect, ignoring the computed value:

```
\begin{array}{c} \mathbf{do} \\ exp_1 \\ exp_2 \\ return \ exp_3 \\ \mathbf{is} \ \mathbf{syntactic} \ \mathbf{sugar} \ \mathbf{for} \\ exp_1 \ggg \lambda_- \to \\ exp_2 \ggg \lambda_- \to \\ return \ exp_3 \end{array}
```

The do-notation (3)

A let-construct is also provided:

```
\begin{array}{c} \mathbf{do} \\ \mathbf{let} \ a = exp_1 \\ b = exp_2 \\ return \ exp_3 \\ \mathbf{is} \ \mathbf{equivalent} \ \mathbf{to} \\ \mathbf{do} \\ a \leftarrow return \ exp_1 \\ b \leftarrow return \ exp_2 \\ return \ exp_3 \end{array}
```

Applicative do-notation (2)

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For example, an applicative parser:

```
commandIf :: Parser \ Command commandIf = \\ kwd \ "if" \\ c \leftarrow expr \\ kwd \ "then" \\ t \leftarrow command \\ kwd \ "else" \\ e \leftarrow command \\ return \ (If \ c \ t \ e)
```

The Haskell IO Monad (2)

 ${\it IO}$ essentially provides all effects of typical imperative languages. Besides input/output:

- Pointers and imperative state (through IORef)
- · Raising and handling exceptions
- Concurrency
- · Foreign function interface

IO is sometimes referred to as the "sin bin"!

Numbering Trees in do-notation

```
number Tree t = runS (ntAux t)

where

ntAux :: Tree \ a \rightarrow S (Tree Int)

ntAux (Leaf \_) = do

n \leftarrow get

set \ (n+1)

return \ (Leaf \ n)

ntAux \ (Node \ t1 \ t2) = do

t1' \leftarrow ntAux \ t1

t2' \leftarrow ntAux \ t2

return \ (Node \ t1' \ t2')
```

Some monad utilities:

Monadic Utility Functions

```
sequence :: Monad \ m \Rightarrow [m \ a] \rightarrow m \ [a]
sequence\_:: Monad \ m \Rightarrow [m \ a] \rightarrow m \ ()
mapM :: Monad \ m \Rightarrow (a \rightarrow m \ b) \rightarrow [a] \rightarrow m \ [b]
mapM\_:: Monad \ m \Rightarrow (a \rightarrow m \ b) \rightarrow [a] \rightarrow m \ ()
when :: Monad \ m \Rightarrow Bool \rightarrow m \ () \rightarrow m \ ()
foldM :: Monad \ m \Rightarrow (a \rightarrow b \rightarrow m \ a) \rightarrow a \rightarrow [b] \rightarrow m \ a
liftM :: Monad \ m \Rightarrow (a \rightarrow b) \rightarrow m \ a \rightarrow m \ b
liftM2 :: Monad \ m \Rightarrow (a \rightarrow b) \rightarrow m \ a \rightarrow m \ b
```

The ST Monad: "Real" State

The ST monad (common Haskell extension) provides real, imperative state behind the scenes to allow efficient implementation of imperative algorithms:

```
data ST s a -- abstract instance Monad (ST s) newSTRef :: s ST a (STRef s a) readSTRef :: STRef s a 	o ST s a writeSTRef :: STRef s a 	o a 	o ST s () runST :: (forall s . st s a) ot a
```

Applicative do-notation (1)

A variation of the do-notation is also available for applicatives:

```
\begin{aligned} \mathbf{do} \\ a &\leftarrow exp_1 \\ b &\leftarrow exp_2 \\ return \ (\dots a \dots b \dots) \end{aligned}
```

Note that the bound variables may only be used in the *return*-expression, or the code becomes monadic.

In this case, a must not occur in exp_2 .

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The Haskell IO Monad (1)

In Haskell, IO is handled through the IO monad. IO is *abstract*! Conceptually:

```
\mathbf{newtype}\ IO\ a = IO\ (\mathit{World} \to (a,\mathit{World}))
```

Some operations:

```
\begin{array}{ll} putChar & :: Char \rightarrow IO \ () \\ putStr & :: String \rightarrow IO \ () \\ putStrLn & :: String \rightarrow IO \ () \\ getChar & :: IO \ Char \\ getLine & :: IO \ String \\ getContents :: IO \ String \\ \end{array}
```

ST vs IO

Why use ST if IO also gives access to imperative state?

- ST much more focused: provides only state, not a lot more besides.
- \bullet ST computations can be run safely inside pure code.

It is possible to run IO comp. inside pure code:

```
unsafePerformIO :: IO \ a \rightarrow a
```

But make sure you know what you are doing!

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.

