

# LiU-FP2016: Lecture 9

## *Monads in Haskell*

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# This Lecture

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

# 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 -> m a
    (>>=)  :: m a -> (a -> m b) -> m b
```

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

# Monads in Haskell (2)

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

```
(>>) :: m a -> m b -> m b  
m >> k = m >>= \_ -> k
```

```
fail :: String -> m a  
fail s = error s
```

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

# The Maybe Monad in Haskell

```
instance Monad Maybe where
  -- return :: a -> Maybe a
  return = Just

  -- (>>=) :: Maybe a -> (a -> Maybe b)
  --        -> Maybe b
  Nothing >>= _ = Nothing
  (Just x) >>= f = f x
```

# The Monad Type Class Hierarchy (1)

Monads are mathematically related to two other notions:

- Functors
- Applicative Functors

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 => Applicative f where ...
```

```
class Applicative m => Monad m where ...
```

# The Monad Type Class Hierachy (2)

For example, `fmap` can in principle be defined in terms of `>>=` and `return`, demonstrating that a monad is a functor:

$$\text{fmap } f \ m = m \gg= \ \backslash x \ -> \ \text{return } (f \ x)$$

# The Monad Type Class Hierarchy (2)

For example, `fmap` can in principle be defined in terms of `>>=` and `return`, demonstrating that a monad is a functor:

```
fmap f m = m >>= \x -> 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.



# 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 (`<*>`)

satisfying some laws.

```
class Functor f => Applicative f where
  pure    :: a -> f a
  (<*>)  :: f (a -> b) -> f a -> f b
```

# Applicative Functors (2)

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

# Applicative Functors and Monads

A requirement is `return = pure`.

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

```
class Functor m => Monad m where
  return :: a -> m a
  return = pure
```

```
(>>=) :: m a -> (a -> m b) -> m b
```

# Exercise 1: A State Monad in Haskell

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

```
newtype S a = S { unS :: (Int -> (a, Int)) }
```

(Thus: `unS :: S a -> (Int -> (a, Int))`)

Provide a `Monad` instance for `S`, ignoring for now that instances for `Functor` and `Applicative` are also needed.

# Exercise 1: Solution

```
instance Monad S where
  return a = S (\s -> (a, s))
```

```
m >>= f = S $ \s ->
  let (a, s') = unS m s
  in unS (f a) s'
```

# The Complete Set of S Instances (1)

```
instance Functor S where
  fmap f sa = S $ \s ->
    let
      (a, s') = unS sa s
    in
      (f a, s')
```



# The Complete Set of S Instances (2)

```
instance Applicative S where
  pure a = S $ \s -> (a, s)
```

```
sf <*> sa = S $ \s ->
  let
    (f, s') = unS sf s
  in
    unS (fmap f sa) s'
```

# The Complete Set of S Instances (3)

```
instance Monad S where
  m >>= f = S $ \s ->
    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 -> Maybe a
fail s = Nothing
```

```
catch :: Maybe a -> Maybe a -> Maybe a
m1 `catch` m2 =
  case m1 of
    Just _   -> m1
    Nothing -> m2
```

# Monad-specific Operations (2)

Typical operations on a state monad:

```
set :: Int -> S ()  
set a = S (\_ -> ((), a))
```

```
get :: S Int  
get = S (\s -> (s, s))
```

Moreover, need to “run” a computation. E.g.:

```
runS :: S a -> a  
runS m = fst (unS m 0)
```

# The do-notation (1)

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
```

# The do-notation (2)

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

```
do
   $exp_1$ 
   $exp_2$ 
  return  $exp_3$ 
```

is syntactic sugar for

```
 $exp_1 \gg= \_ \rightarrow$   
 $exp_2 \gg= \_ \rightarrow$   
return  $exp_3$ 
```

# The do-notation (3)

A `let`-construct is also provided:

```
do
  let a =  $exp_1$ 
      b =  $exp_2$ 
  return  $exp_3$ 
```

is equivalent to

```
do
  a <- return  $exp_1$ 
  b <- return  $exp_2$ 
  return  $exp_3$ 
```

# Numbering Trees in do-notation

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

```
numberTree t = runS (ntAux t)
```

where

```
ntAux :: Tree a -> S (Tree Int)
```

```
ntAux (Leaf _) = do
```

```
  n <- get
```

```
  set (n + 1)
```

```
  return (Leaf n)
```

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

```
  t1' <- ntAux t1
```

```
  t2' <- ntAux t2
```

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



# The Compiler Fragment Revisited (1)

Given a suitable “Diagnostics” monad  $D$  that collects error messages, `enterVar` can be turned from this:

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

into this:

```
enterVarD :: Id -> Int -> Type -> Env  
          -> D Env
```

and then `identDefs` from this ...

# The Compiler Fragment Revisited (2)

```
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
```

# The Compiler Fragment Revisited (3)

into this:

```
identDefsD l env [] = return ([], env)
identDefsD l env ((i,t,e) : ds) = do
  e'      <- identAuxD l env e
  env'    <- enterVarD i l t env
  (ds', env'') <- identDefsD l env' ds
  return ((i,t,e') : ds', env'')
```

(Suffix D just to remind us the types have changed.)

# The Compiler Fragment Revisited (4)

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!

# Monadic Utility Functions (1)

Some monad utilities:

```
sequence  :: Monad m => [m a] -> m [a]
```

```
sequence_ :: Monad m => [m a] -> m ()
```

```
mapM     :: Monad m => (a -> m b) -> [a] -> m [b]
```

```
mapM_    :: Monad m => (a -> m b) -> [a] -> m ()
```

```
when     :: Monad m => Bool -> m () -> m ()
```

```
foldM    :: Monad m =>  
          (a -> b -> m a) -> a -> [b] -> m a
```

```
liftM    :: Monad m => (a -> b) -> m a -> m b
```

```
liftM2   :: Monad m =>  
          (a -> b -> c) -> m a -> m b -> m c
```

(liftM = fmap; partly historical.)

# Monadic Utility Functions (2)

Example: Suppose we're given a list `xs` of elements of type `T1` to process in some monad `M`:

- Process `xs` effectfully: `proc :: T1 -> M T2`
- Pick “good” results: `good :: T2 -> Bool`
- “Print” a warning if no good results:  
`print :: String -> M ()`

do

```
ys <- mapM proc xs
let gys = filter good ys
when (null gys) (print "No good!")
return gys
```

# The List Monad

Computation with many possible results,  
“nondeterminism”:

```
instance Monad [] where
  return a = [a]
  m >>= f  = concat (map f m)
  fail s   = []
```

Example:

```
x <- [1, 2]
y <- ['a', 'b']
return (x,y)
```

Result:

```
[(1, 'a'), (1, 'b'),
 (2, 'a'), (2, 'b')]
```

# The Reader Monad

Computation in an environment:

```
instance Monad ((->) e) where
  return a = const a
  m >>= f  = \e -> f (m e) e
```

```
getEnv :: ((->) e) e
getEnv = id
```



# The Haskell IO Monad

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

```
newtype IO a = IO (World -> (a, World))
```

Some operations:

```
putChar      :: Char -> IO ()
```

```
putStr      :: String -> IO ()
```

```
putStrLn    :: String -> IO ()
```

```
getChar     :: IO Char
```

```
getLine     :: IO String
```

```
getContents :: IO String
```

# 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 s a -> (STRef s a)
readSTRef   :: STRef s a -> ST s a
writeSTRef  :: STRef s a -> a -> ST s ()
```

```
runST :: forall s . ST s a -> a
```

# 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.