

CS 115 Functional Programming

Lecture 12:
The IO Monad
(part 2)



Today

- Basic Io functions
- Stand-alone Haskell programs
- ghci and the IO monad
- Mutable references (IORef)





IO functions

- We've already seen the getLine and putStrLn functions for reading and printing lines of text
- Now we'll look at various related I/O functions
- For more detailed documentation, look up the System. IO documentation on Hoogle





Hoogle

- Hoogle is "Google for the Haskell APIs"
- Web site: http://haskell.org/hoogle/
- This is the Haskell programmer's best friend!
 - Searchable, detailed documentation of all Haskell modules
 - Links to source code if the explanation isn't good enough
 - Don't program in Haskell without it!
- Get System. IO by typing System. IO in the search box and clicking on the link





Functions for input

- getChar :: IO Char
 - reads and returns a single character from stdin
- getLine :: IO String
 - reads and returns a single line from stdin, without the EOL (newline) character
- getContents :: IO String
 - returns all input from stdin until EOF as a single string
 - read lazily as needed





Functions for output

- putChar :: Char -> IO ()
 - prints a single character to stdout
- putStr :: String -> IO ()
 - prints a string to stdout
- putStrLn :: String -> IO ()
 - same as putStr, but also prints a newline
- print :: Show a => a -> IO ()
 - prints any value whose type is an instance of Show to stdout, and adds a newline





File handles

- Haskell uses the Handle type to represent file handles
- Standard Handles:
 - stdin
 - stdout
 - stderr
- Many I/O functions have h-equivalents, which are their generalizations to arbitrary file handles





File handles

- Examples:
- hGetChar :: Handle -> IO Char
 - reads a character from a file represented by Handle
- hGetLine :: Handle -> IO String
- hGetContents :: Handle -> IO String
- hPutChar :: Handle -> Char -> IO ()
- hPutStr :: Handle -> String -> IO ()
- hPutStrLn :: Handle -> String -> IO ()
- hPrint :: Show a => Handle -> a -> IO ()





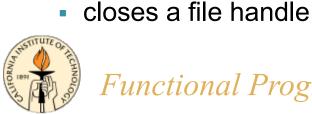
File handles

Other Handle-related functions/types:

```
type FilePath = String
data IOMode =
    ReadMode
   WriteMode
   AppendMode
   ReadWriteMode

    openFile :: FilePath -> IOMode -> IO Handle

  opens a file with IOMode, returns a Handle
hClose :: Handle -> IO ()
```





Other file functions

readFile :: FilePath -> IO String
reads the contents of an entire file (lazily)
writeFile :: FilePath -> String -> IO ()
writes a string to a file
appendFile :: FilePath -> String -> IO ()
appends a string to a file
For other file functions/types/etc., see Hoogle!

Functional Programming



Writing standalone programs

- Haskell is a compiled language
- The "normal" mode of operation of Haskell is to compile a program to a stand-alone executable
- ghci is mainly used for testing code interactively
- Basic principles for standalone executables:
 - The starting point of the program is the function main
 - main must be in module Main
 - main must have type IO ()





Simple standalone program

The classic "hello world" program:

```
module Main where
main :: IO ()
main = putStrLn "hello, world!"

• Compile and run as follows:
$ ghc -o hello Hello.hs -package base
$ ./hello
hello, world!
```





Simple standalone program

- If module declaration is left out, Main module is assumed
- If name of module is other than Main, it won't work
 - execution starts with Main.main
- I recommend you also use the -w warning option to ghc i.e.
- \$ ghc -W -o hello Hello.hs -package base
- This turns on lots of useful warnings (like in ghci)





Chasing dependencies

- Typically, the file where main is defined is called
 Main.hs (though it doesn't have to be)
- This file imports other modules used in the program
- If you type
- \$ ghc Main.hs -o program_name -package base
- Then ghc will compile Main.hs and all modules referenced from Main.hs that need to be recompiled (very convenient!)



main and IO

- The main function has type IO ()
- It does some I/O, and returns nothing of significance
- This illustrates how IO works in Haskell:
 - Io actions are chained together using >>=
 - Eventually, the entire program is represented as one giant composite IO action called main
 - The runtime system is in charge of "running" this action to produce the effect of executing the program
 - This "running" of main is inherently non-functional





ghci

- ghci is an extremely useful tool for Haskell programmers
- ghci doesn't accept the exact same language that is used in files of Haskell source code
- Some differences are obvious
 - e.g.: commands like:load,:type,:kind are ghcispecific
- Even the Haskell language used in ghci has significant differences/limitations
 - though the difference is getting smaller with newer versions





ghci

- ghci works line-by-line
- All Haskell expressions entered must fit on a single line
- Code that would require indentation in Haskell source code can't be written in ghci the same way
 - though we'll see later how to fake it
- Fortunately, all indentation-dependent syntax in Haskell has a non-indentation-dependent form, usually involving curly braces and semicolons





ghci

Example: in source code file:

```
let x = 1
    y = 2
in x + y
• In ghci:
ghci> let { x = 1 ; y = 2 } in x + y
3
ghci> let x = 1 ; y = 2 in x + y
3
```





 One-line function definitions can be entered as a letexpression:

```
ghci> let double x = 2 * x
ghci> double 10
20
```

- Such a let scopes over the rest of the session
 - Similar to a let inside a do-expression





 Recent versions of ghci are more flexible with function definitions; all of these are accepted:

```
ghci> double :: Int -> Int; double x = x * 2
ghci> :t double
double :: Int -> Int
ghci> let double :: Int -> Int; double x = x * 2
ghci> :t double
double :: Int -> Int
ghci> double x = x * 2
ghci> :t double
```





 Functions with multiple cases are tedious to define in ghci because of the one-line restriction:

```
ghci> let fact 0 = 1; fact n = n * fact (n - 1)
ghci> fact 10
3628800
```

 Can wrap function definition in curly braces, but this doesn't get around the one-line restriction:

```
ghci> let { fact 0 = 1; fact n = n * fact (n - 1) }
```





 ghci allows you to define pseudo-multiline functions using the : { and : } delimiters (each on its own line):

```
ghci> : {
    | let fact 0 = 1
    | fact n = n * fact (n - 1)
    :}
```

- All lines inside: { and:} are combined into one line (without the leading | s on each line), separated by semicolons which are added for you
 - The | at the beginning of the lines is automatically added by ghci





 ghci also allows you to define real multiline functions exactly as you would in a file:

```
ghci> :{
  | fact :: Integer -> Integer
  | fact 0 = 1
  | fact n = n * fact (n - 1)
  :}
```

Nice! ☺





ghci and IO

- ghci reads an expression, evaluates it, and prints the result (read-eval-print loop or REPL)
- ghci "knows" about IO actions and handles them specially: an IO action that results from evaluating an expression is executed immediately:

```
ghci> :t putStrLn "hello"
putStrLn "hello" :: IO ()
ghci> putStrLn "hello"
hello
```





ghci and IO

- If an expression entered into ghci has the type IO a
 for some value a, then
 - the IO action is executed
 - the return value of type a is printed if its type is an instance of Show and is not ()
- For instance:

```
ghci> do { putStrLn "hello"; return "yes" }
hello [printed]
"yes" [returned]
```





Aside: putStrLn vs. print

- There are two ways to print strings in Haskell
 - one represented by putStr and putStrLn
 - one represented by print
- Main difference: print wraps quotes around the string

```
ghci> putStrLn "hello"
hello
ghci> print "hello"
"hello"
```





Aside: putStrLn vs. print

 Values printed as part of ghci's REPL use print, not putStrLn, to print the value

```
ghci> "hello"
"hello"
ghci> return "hello" :: IO String
"hello"
```



Aside: putStrLn vs. print

- print can print any value whose type is an instance of the Show type class
- putStrLn can only print Strings

```
ghci> putStrLn (show 10)
10
ghci> print 10
10
```





ghci and IO

 ghci also allows you to write expressions as if it were executing inside a do-expression:

```
ghci> a <- return 10
ghci> a
10
```





ghci and IO

- Essentially, everything you type into ghci is handled as if it was being executed inside a do expression
- This explains why let syntax with functions works the way it does
- Also explains why things like
- a <- return 10
- work





- Haskell fully supports imperative programming in the TO monad
- We've already seen how Haskell uses the IO monad to do input and output
- Other aspects of imperative programming include:
 - mutable variables
 - mutable arrays
- The IO monad can handle these too



- Haskell has no notion of a "variable" as such
- What other languages call "variables" are represented as a "reference cell"
- This is like a box that stores one item
- You can read from it or write to it
- In Haskell, this is called an IORef and must be used inside the IO monad



- To use IORefs you have to import the Data. IORef module
- In source code:

```
import Data.IORef
```

• In ghci:

```
ghci> :m +Data.IORef
```

Alternatively, you can type:

```
ghci> import Data.IORef
```





- Key functions from Data.IORef:
- newIORef :: a -> IO (IORef a)
 - creates a new IORef from a value
- readIORef :: IORef a -> IO a
 - reads the value stored in an IORef
- writeIORef :: IORef a -> a -> IO ()
 - writes a value into an IORef, overwriting the previous value



 IORefs are particularly easy to use in ghci because of ghci's handling of IO values:

```
ghci> x <- newIORef 10
ghci> readIORef x
10
ghci> writeIORef x 20
ghci> readIORef x
20
```





Example: the gcd function

 We'll use IORefs to write a Haskell equivalent to this C function to compute greatest common denominators:

```
int gcd(int x, int y) {
    while (x != y) {
        if (x > y) {
            x = x - y;
        } else {
            y = y - x;
        }
    return x;
}
```





Note!

- No real Haskell programmer would write a gcd function this way!
- gcd can be written purely functionally e.g.

```
gcd :: Integer -> Integer
gcd x y =
  case compare x y of
  EQ -> x
  LT -> gcd x (y - x)
  GT -> gcd (x - y) y
```





Note!

- However, it's been said that "real programmers can write C in any language"
- This is certainly going to be true for Haskell
- Our function will use IORefs, so it will have an IO type signature:

```
gcd :: Integer -> Integer -> IO Integer
```





- The C code uses a while loop
- Haskell doesn't have a while loop, so we have to write one!
 - call it while IO
- We will use IORefs to store the state variables for the function
- Type signature of whileIo:

```
whileIO :: IO Bool -> IO () -> IO ()
```





```
whileIO :: IO Bool -> IO () -> IO ()
```

- The first argument is the test
 - do some IO action (consulting some IORefs) then return a boolean, which is the result of the test
- The second argument is the "block" of code to execute in the IO monad
- The return type represents the result of running the while loop





```
whileIO :: IO Bool -> IO () -> IO ()
whileIO test block =
  do b <- test
   if b
      then block >> whileIO test block
      else return ()
```

 If the test is true, execute the block and repeat the while loop, otherwise you're done



Could write this without >> operator:

```
whileIO :: IO Bool -> IO () -> IO ()
whileIO test block =
  do b <- test
   if b
      then do block
      whileIO test block
      else return ()</pre>
```





Let's sketch out our imperative gcd function:





```
gcd :: Integer -> Integer -> IO Integer
gcd m n =
  do x <- newIORef m
     y <- newIORef n
     while IO
       (do x' <- readIORef x</pre>
           y' <- readIORef y
           return (x' /= y'))
       <modify value stored in x or y>
     readIORef x
```





```
gcd :: Integer -> Integer -> IO Integer
gcd m n =
  do x <- newIORef m
     y <- newIORef n
     whileIO
        (do x' <- readIORef x</pre>
           y' <- readIORef y
            return (x' /= y'))
        (do x' <- readIORef x</pre>
           y' <- readIORef y
           if x' < y'
               then writeIORef y (y' - x')
               else writeIORef x (x' - y'))
     readIORef x
```





liftM2 (for experts)

```
gcd :: Integer -> Integer -> IO Integer
gcd m n =
  do x <- newIORef m
     y <- newIORef n
     whileIO
       (liftM2 (/=) (readIORef x) (readIORef y))
       (do x' <- readIORef x</pre>
           y' <- readIORef y
           if x' < y'
               then writeIORef y (y' - x')
              else writeIORef x (x' - y'))
     readIORef x
```





liftM2 (for experts)

- The liftM2 function (from the Control.Monad module) can "lift" a binary function/operator into an arbitrary monad
- This can make code shorter, more natural

```
ghci> :t liftM2
liftM2 :: Monad m => (a1 -> a2 -> r) -> m a1 -> m a2 -> m r
ghci> :t (/=)
(/=) :: Eq a => a -> a -> Bool
ghci> :t liftM2 (/=)
liftM2 (/=) :: (Eq a2, Monad m) => m a2 -> m a2 -> m Bool
```

 Here, we lift (/=) into a function taking two monadic values as arguments and returning a monadic Bool





<*> (for experts)

```
gcd :: Integer -> Integer -> IO Integer
gcd m n =
  do x <- newIORef m
     y <- newIORef n
     whileIO
       (pure (/=) <*> (readIORef x) <*> (readIORef y))
       (do x' <- readIORef x</pre>
           y' <- readIORef y
           if x' < y'
               then writeIORef y (y' - x')
              else writeIORef x (x' - y'))
     readIORef x
```





<*> (for experts)

```
gcd :: Integer -> Integer -> IO Integer
gcd m n =
  do x <- newIORef m
     y <- newIORef n
     whileIO
       ((/=) < > (readIORef x) < * (readIORef y))
       (do x' <- readIORef x</pre>
           y' <- readIORef y
           if x' < y'
               then writeIORef y (y' - x')
              else writeIORef x (x' - y'))
     readIORef x
```





<*> (for experts)

- The pure function and the <\$> and <*> operators use the IO instance of a type class called Applicative
- Applicative is like a weaker version of Monad
 - (every Monad is an Applicative but not vice-versa)
- pure is the same as return, but for Applicative

```
pure :: Applicative f => a -> f a
```

<*> lifts a function into its Applicative counterpart

```
(<*>) :: Applicative f => f (a -> b) -> f a -> f b
```

- Applicative is short for "applicative functor"
 - many other uses!





- Conclusions:
 - Imperative programming is possible in Haskell, and fairly straightforward
 - Imperative programming is quite tedious compared to C
 - Must be extremely explicit about everything
- In C: whether a variable represents a value or a reference is handled automatically based on whether it's on the LHS or the RHS of the = sign



- Imperative style is not recommended in general!
- However, situations exist where writing code in an
- imperative style is more efficient than functional alternatives (good to have choices!)
- Also, useful for foreign function interfaces to e.g. C code
- Generally, functional code is easier to write/debug and may even be faster



- We will see a different way to write code in imperative style later in the course, when we cover state monads
- State monads will give us a purely functional way to simulate imperative code (reading/writing from/to state variables, but not input/output)



Coming up

- Theoretical:
 - The three monad laws
- Practical:
 - Arrays: Array and IOArray

