

CS 115 Functional Programming

Lecture 22:

Monad Transformers

```
(* -> *) -> (* -> *)

(* -> *) -> (* -> *)

(* -> *) -> (* -> *)

(* -> *) -> (* -> *)

(* -> *) -> (* -> *)
```





Previously

- State monads
- Error-handling monads
- Parser combinators





Today

- More on the IO monad
- Monad transformers
 - Combining state-passing and error-handling monads





More on the IO monad

- So far, we've been using the IO monad in a handwavy manner
 - more "practical" than theoretical
- We haven't worried too much about how it actually works
- Now that we've studied state monads, we can go "inside the IO monad"



Good news!

- If you understand state monads, you already understand the IO monad!
- The IO monad is essentially just a state monad that uses a special value (which we can call realWorld) as its state value
- (I'm glossing over some nonessential details here)
- The purpose of the realWorld value is to ensure that IO actions are performed in the correct sequence





Sequencing

- Consider the code:
 - putStr "hello" >> putStrLn "world"
- We know what we want this to do:
 - print out hello, then
 - print out world
- We need to enforce sequencing so that world doesn't get printed out before hello!
- Using a state monad with the realWorld value makes sure that this happens
 - the putStrLn can't proceed until it gets the realWorld value as the (state) result of the putStr





Uniqueness of realWorld

- OK, so the state monad will give us the sequencing we need
- Why should we need the realWorld value?
- Why not just use an arbitrary value of e.g. an integer?
- Answers:
 - there should only be one value of the realWorld type
 - you should not be able to manipulate this value directly (opaque value) or conjure it up out of nothing





Uniqueness of realWorld

- Therefore, the realWorld value is unique (the only instance of the type RealWorld) and not usermanipulable
- When the program as a whole (of type IO ()) starts, the runtime system of GHC passes it the realWorld value and the program runs to completion, passing realWorld to every IO computation that uses it
- This ensures that Io computations are sequenced properly (like a baton in a relay race)
- However, there is one way around this...





unsafePerformIO

- The unsafePerformIO function (in the System.IO.Unsafe module)
- unsafePerformIO takes the realWorld value and passes it to an IO computation to get the result, even when it is not part of a sequence of IO computations joined together with >>=
- In other words, it ignores the sequencing constraint of realWorld and just "does the computation"
- This can have a number of unpleasant effects if used unwisely





unsafePerformIO

- unsafePerformIO is only safe to use if
 - the order in which the IO computation is performed relative to the "main line" of IO computations doesn't matter
 - e.g. in printing outputs by the trace function in Debug. Trace
 - the compiler is not allowed to inline the code (compiler pragma NOINLINE must be in effect)
 - this is beyond the scope of this class
- Bottom line: if you're not an expert, don't use unsafePerformIO





New topic!





Monad transformers

- So far, we have seen a number of monads
 - IO, Maybe, list, error, State, parsing
- Each monad represents a particular kind of computation and makes it convenient to perform that kind of computation
 - Maybe: computations that may fail
 - list: computations that may return multiple results
 - error: computations that may fail with particular error conditions
 - State: computations that may manipulate state
 - Io: computations that do input/output
 - parsing: computations that involve parsing! ©





Monad transformers

- Problem: each monad represents only one kind of computation
- If we have a "notion of computation" that combines the notions of computation of two or more monads, using the monads we've just described won't suffice
- We have two options:
 - build a new (complex) monad that combines the computational effects of more than one monad
 - use monad transformers to generate the new monad from two or more old ones





Example

- We will structure the rest of the discussion around computations that can read/write state (like the State monad) and throw/catch particular errors (like error-handling monads)
- We will first build our own custom monad to do this
- Then we will instead use a monad transformer to do the exact same thing with far less effort



Sample problem

- To make this more concrete, we'll use the resulting monad to solve an actual (trivial) problem: computing factorials using a stateful algorithm, with error reporting if the argument is negative
- However, the monads we generate can be used in any situation where you want to have a combination of state-passing and error-handling
- They will also be purely functional!



- We will call our monad StateError, since it's conceptually a combination of a State monad and an error-handling monad
- The computations we are modeling can be represented schematically like this:

```
[read/write state, throw/catch errors]
```





- We need to represent StateError as a datatype
- Recall that State was represented like this:

```
data State s a = State (s -> (a, s))
```

- And error-handling monads are usually represented as Either e a for some error type e
- We need to combine them, but how?
- We need to think about how we want to structure the computation, then represent that in the datatype





- Our datatype will pass a state value of type s from computation to computation
- Each computation takes a state value and either
 - succeeds, computing a new state value of type s and returning a value of type a, OR
 - fails, returning an error condition of type e
- Therefore, the natural way to represent this in a Haskell datatype is:

```
data StateError e s a =
  StateError (s -> Either e (a, s))
```





```
data StateError e s a =
  StateError (s -> Either e (a, s))
```

Note: an alternative way to represent this is as:

```
data StateError e s a =
  StateError (s -> (Either e a, s))
```

- This represents a computation that always returns the state, even if an error occurs
- Depending on what you want, you might prefer this
- (Interesting design decisions!)





```
data StateError e s a =
  StateError (s -> Either e (a, s))
```

- The monad will therefore be what...?
- Recall that a monad is a unary type constructor (of kind * -> *)
- We will have:

```
instance Monad (StateError e s) where
  return = {- to be filled in -}
  mv >>= f = {- to be filled in -}
```





return

Recall that return in the State monad had the definition

```
return x = State (\st -> (x, st))
```

and in error-handling monads, it was:

```
return x = Right x
```

What should it be in the StateError monad?

```
return x = StateError (\st -> Right (x, st))
```







 Recall that >>= in the State monad had the (fairly complex) definition:





For the error monad (Either e), the definition is:

```
(Left x) >>= _ = Left x
(Right y) >>= f = f y
```

We need to somehow combine this with

to get the definition for StateError





• First, we convert the **State** constructors to **StateError** constructors:

This will not type check! Why?





• Note that StateError has the type:

```
data StateError e s a =
  StateError (s -> Either e (a, s))
```

Need a case statement to unpack Either type





```
mv >>= g
  = StateError (\st ->
      let (StateError ff) = mv in
        case ff st of
          Left err -> Left err
          Right (y, st') ->
            let (StateError gg) = g y
            in gg st')
```

 This is the correct definition of >>= for the (StateError e s) monad





Monad laws

- We're not going to try to verify the monad laws for this monad
- It's straightforward and very tedious
- It would only get more tedious to derive the return method and >>= operator and verify the monad laws for an even more complex monad (say, that also incorporated IO)



So far

The full Monad instance for StateError is:

```
instance Monad (StateError e s) where
  return x = StateError (\st -> Right (x, st))
 mv >>= q
    = StateError (\st ->
        let (StateError ff) = mv in
          case ff st of
            Left err -> Left err
            Right (y, st') ->
              let (StateError gg) = g y
              in qq st')
```





Simplifying

 We can simplify this by defining a runStateError function much like the runState function:

```
runStateError :: StateError e s a -> (s -> Either e (a, s))
runStateError (StateError f) = f
```

 We can even put this right into the definition of the StateError datatype:

```
data StateError e s a = StateError
{ runStateError :: s -> Either e (a, s) }
```

 We can use runStateError to simplify the Monad instance for StateError





Simplifying

• Using runStateError gives us:

```
instance Monad (StateError es) where
  return x = StateError (\st -> Right (x, st))

mv >>= g
  = StateError (\st ->
      case runStateError mv st of
      Left err -> Left err
      Right (y, st') -> runStateError (g y) st')
```



MonadState

- We need to also define a MonadState instance for StateError so we can use get and put in the StateError monad
- This is easy because neither get nor put can fail:

```
instance MonadState s (StateError e s) where
  get = StateError (\st -> Right (st, st))
  put st = StateError (\ -> Right ((), st))
```



- Similarly, we need to define a MonadError instance for StateError so we can use throwError and catchError in the StateError monad
- throwError is easy: discard the state and return the error value

```
instance MonadError e (StateError e s) where
  throwError err = StateError (\_ -> Left err)
  catchError mv h = {- to be defined -}
```



- catchError is trickier; let's handle the non-failure case first
- It just passes the monadic value through:

```
instance MonadError e (StateError e s) where
  throwError err = StateError (\_ -> Left err)
  catchError mv h =
    StateError (\st ->
      case runStateError mv st of
      Left err -> {- to be defined -}
      Right (x, st') -> Right (x, st'))
```





If no error was thrown, this would be equivalent to:

```
catchError mv h =
  StateError (\st ->
  runStateError mv st)
```

Or:

```
catchError mv h =
   StateError (runStateError mv)
```

Or:

```
catchError mv h = mv
```





 If an error was thrown, we would have to apply the handler h to the error value err to get:

```
catchError mv h =
  StateError (\st ->
  case runStateError mv st of
  Left err -> ... (h err) ...
  Right (x, st') -> Right (x, st'))
```

- (h err) has the type StateError e s a
- We need a value of type **Either** e (a, s)
- Try applying runStateError to (h err)





This gives us:

```
catchError mv h =
  StateError (\st ->
  case runStateError mv st of
    Left err -> runStateError (h err) ...
  Right (x, st') -> Right (x, st'))
```

- runStateError (h err) has the type
 (s -> Either e (a, s))
- Need to apply this to the state to get a value of type
 Either e (a, s)





MonadError

```
catchError mv h =
  StateError (\st ->
  case runStateError mv st of
  Left err -> runStateError (h err) st
  Right (x, st') -> Right (x, st'))
```

- This is the final definition of catcherror
- Now we have the instance of MonadError for the (StateError e s) monad



Recap

- We've defined a new datatype called StateError to represent computations that manipulate state and that can throw/catch errors
- We defined a Monad instance for the type to allow us to compose StateError monadic functions
- We defined MonadState and MonadError
 instances which allow us to use convenient functions
 for accessing/changing state and throwing/catching
 errors in the monad



Recap

- We've seen that defining a custom monad that combines features from two other monads is a real pain in the neck (or other body parts)!
- Let's see how monad transformers will simplify this



StateT

- We will be using the StateT monad transformer
 - monad (T)ransformer names typically end in a capital T
- Its job is to "layer" state-manipulation behavior "on top of" another monad
- A monad transformer thus takes one monad, adds some features, and outputs another monad, which is the one we want
 - [Aside: Kind of reminiscent of functors in OCaml!]





 The StateError datatype can be defined using the StateT monad transformer as follows:

```
data StateError e s a =
   StateError { runStateError :: StateT s (Either e) a }
Contrast this with the previous version:
data StateError e s a =
   StateError { runStateError :: s -> Either e (a, s) }
• StateT is defined in Control.Monad.State as:
newtype StateT s m a =
   StateT { runStateT :: s -> m (a,s) }
```





• StateT is defined in Control. Monad. State as:

```
newtype StateT s m a =
  StateT { runStateT :: s -> m (a,s) }
```

- Here, m can be any monad
- It's called the "inner monad" of the transformer
- The monad we're actually using is the Either e monad, so this is equivalent to:

```
StateT { runStateT :: s -> Either e (a,s) }
```





```
newtype StateT s m a =
  StateT { runStateT :: s -> m (a,s) }
```

- The cool thing about StateT is that as long as m is a monad, (StateT s m) will be a monad too!
- In fact, there is a definition for these monads:





- Notice that the definitions of return and >>= are monadic as well (in the inner monad m)
- If m is **Either** e, this reduces to:

which is the same definition we derived before





• If we had defined StateError like this:

```
type StateError e s a = StateT s (Either e) a
```

- then the previous Monad instance would work for this
- Since we wrapped this in a data definition:

```
data StateError e s a =
   StateError { runStateError :: StateT s (Either e) a }
```

- we have to "unwrap" the datatype to define a Monad instance
- This is boilerplate code, and Haskell should be able to do it for you





Let's make a small change:

```
newtype StateError e s a =
   StateError { runStateError :: StateT s (Either e) a }
```

- Recall that newtype is like data from the standpoint of type checking but behaves like a type alias at runtime
- Since this basically is the same as the type definition, we should be able to use the previouslydefined Monad instance on this datatype





And we can!

```
newtype StateError e s a =
   StateError { runStateError :: StateT s (Either e) a }
   deriving (Monad)
```

Cool! ☺





- However, we still don't have the MonadState and MonadError instance definitions we need
- In fact, the MonadState instance has already been defined for all monads derived from the StateT monad transformer, so we can write:

```
newtype StateError e s a =
   StateError { runStateError :: StateT s (Either e) a }
   deriving (Monad, MonadState s)
```

One down, one to go





 You might just want to see if we can automatically derive MonadError as well:

```
newtype StateError e s a =
   StateError { runStateError :: StateT s (Either e) a }
   deriving (Monad, MonadState s, MonadError e)
```

- Amazingly enough, this works too!
- The module Control.Monad.Except defines a
 MonadError instance for monads derived from the
 StateT monad transformer, so we're all set
- I want to show you one more cool trick…





- Recall that monads extend the notion of function application and function composition
- What would be the simplest possible monad?
- Answer: one that doesn't extend that notion at all!
- There is a monad called Identity which is essentially the same as function application and composition
- It lives in the module Control.Monad.Identity



• It has this definition:

```
newtype Identity a = Identity { runIdentity :: a }
instance Monad Identity where
  return x = Identity x
  mv >>= g = g (runIdentity mv)
```

 Notice that except for the Identity wrapper, this is just the same as normal function application e.g.

```
return x = x

mv >>= g = g mv
```

What's the use of this?





- The Identity monad can be used in conjunction with monad transformers to construct "simple" monads i.e. ones that don't wrap anything
- Here is the actual definition of the State monad:

```
type State s = StateT s Identity
```





Similarly, there is a monad transformer called
 ExceptT for error-handling monads using the
 Either type constructor, and we can define our
 StateError type as:

 We are now layering two monad transformers on top of the Identity monad to get our final datatype





Identity -> IO?

 If we used the IO monad as the innermost monad instead of Identity, we'd have:

- We would now have a monad that combines IO, error-handling and state-passing (very powerful!)
- We won't need this, so we'll go back to StateError and use it to do some computations





Recap

 Although we've done a lot of work, the total amount of code we've generated is quite small:

- This is the entire definition of our monad!
- Using monad transformers has taken what would have been a very complicated and messy task and made it trivially easy



Note

Recall the definition of StateT:

```
newtype StateT s m a =
  StateT { runStateT :: s -> m (a, s) }
```

Let's look at the kind of StateT

```
ghci> :kind StateT
StateT :: * -> (* -> *) -> * -> *
```

This is the most complicated kind we've seen yet!



Note

It's more intuitive if we supply the state:

```
ghci> :kind StateT (Integer, Integer)
StateT (Integer, Integer) :: (* -> *) -> * -> *
```

 Note that -> associates to the right, so this is the same as:

```
StateT (Integer, Integer) :: (* -> *) -> (* -> *)
```

- Monads have the kind (* -> *)
- So we see that StateT (Integer, Integer) is like a type-level function on monads, which is what a "monad transformer" really is





- Now using the monad is quite trivial
- We'll write a stateful factorial function that can handle errors (factorial of negative numbers)
- The state will be contained in two Integer variables
- The result will be an Integer
- Errors will be represented by String
- Our principal datatype will thus be:

StateError String (Integer, Integer) Integer





 Here's the guts of the factorial function, written as a state transformer that also handles errors:

```
factorialSE ::
   StateError String (Integer, Integer) Integer
factorialSE = do
   (n, r) <- get
   case compare n 0 of
   LT -> throwError "invalid argument"
   EQ -> return r
   GT -> put (n - 1, r * n) >> factorialSE
```





 To use this, we also need to write a function to run the state transformer on the initial state and extract the result:

```
runSE :: StateError e s a -> s -> Either e (a, s)
runSE mv st =
  let se = runStateError mv in
  runIdentity $ runExceptT $ runStateT se st
```

Let's unpack this definition



```
runSE :: StateError e s a -> s -> Either e (a, s)
runSE mv st =
  let se = runStateError mv in
    runIdentity $ runExceptT $ runStateT se st
```





```
runSE :: StateError e s a -> s -> Either e (a, s)
runSE mv st =
  let se = runStateError mv in
  runIdentity $ runExceptT $ runStateT se st
```

 runStateError mv unpacks the state transformer from the StateError constructor and has the type StateT s (ExceptT e Identity) a





```
runSE :: StateError e s a -> s -> Either e (a, s)
runSE mv st =
  let se = runStateError mv in
    runIdentity $ runExceptT $ runStateT se st
• runStateT se unpacks the state transformer from
  the StateT constructor and has the type
```

s -> ExceptT e Identity (a, s)



```
runSE :: StateError e s a -> s -> Either e (a, s)
runSE mv st =
  let se = runStateError mv in
  runIdentity $ runExceptT $ runStateT se st
```

 runStateT se st applies the state st to the previous state transformer and has the type
 ExceptT e Identity (a, s)





```
runSE :: StateError e s a -> s -> Either e (a, s)
runSE mv st =
  let se = runStateError mv in
  runIdentity $ runExceptT $ runStateT se st
```

 runExceptT \$ runStateT se st unpacks the contents of the ExceptT datatype and has the type Identity (Either e (a, s))





```
runSE :: StateError e s a -> s -> Either e (a, s)
runSE mv st =
  let se = runStateError mv in
  runIdentity $ runExceptT $ runStateT se st
```

- runIdentity \$ runExceptT \$ runStateT se st unpacks the contents of the Identity datatype and has the type (Either e (a, s))
- Each step in the chain just unwraps one more layer until we see the true contents of the datatype



```
runSE :: StateError e s a -> s -> Either e (a, s)
runSE mv st =
  let se = runStateError mv in
  runIdentity $ runExceptT $ runStateT se st
```

 Since we don't want the final state, we can also define evalSE by analogy with evalState to discard the state at the end of the computation:

```
evalSE :: StateError e s a -> s -> Either e a
evalSE mv st =
  case runSE mv st of
  Left err -> Left err
  Right (x, _) -> Right x -- discard state
```





With all this done, defining factorial is easy:

```
factorial :: Integer -> Either String Integer
factorial n = evalSE factorialSE (n, 1)
```

- More importantly, we now have defined all the "plumbing" necessary for writing arbitrary computations that can
 - access/modify state variables
 - throw/catch errors
- in only a few lines of code!





One more thing

Our definition of StateError is:

- It turns out that any instance of the Monad type class also has to be an instance of Functor and Applicative
 - We haven't talked much about Applicative so far
 - but all Monad instances are automatically instances of Applicative and Functor anyway, so GHC can derive those instances



One more thing

We need to rewrite StateError to:

This will silence any warnings





Summary

- We often want to combine monads
 - to get the effect of multiple "notions of computation" in a single computation
 - e.g. state + error, state + error + I/O
- Combining monads by hand is tedious and difficult
- Monad transformers make it extremely easy



Summary

- Most monads in Haskell are defined as monad transformers, and the "simple" monad is defined as the transformer acting on the Identity monad
- Once you've defined a monad in terms of monad transformers (a few lines of code) and written some interface code to run the computation (a few more lines) you can write code in the monad very easily
- Monad transformers are a powerful tool!



Summary

- Many if not most large Haskell programs are defined in terms of one or more "principal monads" which combine multiple monads using monad transformers
- The principal monad contains all the effects needed for the computations carried out by that program
- Each program will typically need a different group of effects



Caveats

- There are some issues/problems with monad transformers
- Some monads (IO, ST) can only be the innermost monad of a transformer for complicated reasons
- The order in which you stack monads (which one is innermost, which one is outermost) can have performance implications
- Writing "one big monad" can be more efficient than layers of monads



Next time

- Last lecture!
- Controlling strictness in Haskell programs

