

CS 115 Functional Programming

Lecture 16:

Error-handling Monads (part 1)





Today

- Error-handling in Haskell
- The error function revisited
- Error-handling in the IO monad
- Extensible exceptions
- The **Either** datatype
- Using (Either e) as an error-handling monad





Error-handling in Haskell

- There are many ways to handle error conditions in Haskell (possibly too many)
- Conceptually, there are two things an error-handling system should be able to do:
 - 1. Give us a way to signal that an error has occurred and break out of the current computation
 - 2. Allow us to recover from errors in a controlled way
- So far, we have only seen the error function



 The error function is generally used in a function when the arguments to the function are invalid:

```
factorial :: Integer -> Integer factorial :: Integer factorial n \mid n < 0 = error "factorial: invalid input" factorial 0 = 1 factorial n = n * factorial (n - 1)
```

- We use error to abort the computation if the input value n is invalid (factorial is not defined for n < 0)
- What would happen without this line?





Without the error line:

```
factorial :: Integer -> Integer
factorial 0 = 1
factorial n = n * factorial (n - 1)
```

Give factorial a negative number input:

```
ghci> factorial (-1)
```

- Infinite loop!
- We need the error function to prevent nontermination





- Different example: tail of a list
- Actually defined like this:

```
tail :: [a] -> [a]
tail (_:xs) = xs
tail [] = error "Prelude.tail: empty list"
• Let's try it on the empty list:
ghci> tail []
```

*** Exception: Prelude.tail: empty list





- Different example: tail of a list
- Imagine if it was defined as:

```
tail :: [a] -> [a]
tail (_:xs) = xs
```

• If we did this:

```
ghci> tail []
*** Exception: Non-exhaustive patterns in
function tail
```

 Here, we are using the error function to make the tail function total (having no undefined cases)





- In both cases, we are using the error function to signal an error, but not to recover from it
- error is normally used only with non-recoverable situations (situations that shouldn't be recovered from)
- Filling in missing cases to make
 - nonterminating cases terminating
 - partial functions total
- are typical applications of error





error has the type (slightly simplified):

```
error :: String -> a
```

- error takes a String (the error message)
- and conceptually returns a value of any type a
- How is this possible?
- Answer: it never returns!
- Type signature is to make compiler happy
- Allows us to use error with any function, since its return type will always be "valid" for that function





- In fact, it is possible to recover from the error function in the IO monad (as we'll see)
- However, this facility is rarely used, both because it's not what error is for and because better alternatives exist
- Let's look at other error-handling options





Error-handling as an "effect"

- Most languages use some kind of exception handling to deal with error situations
- This is inherently non-functional (why?)
- You can think of a function that can throw/catch exceptions as a function with an additional "effect"
- Therefore, monads will be useful, as we'll see
- For now, we'll look at the IO monad, which has its own special exception-handling mechanism

Error-handling in the IO monad

- Inside the Io monad, errors can be signaled ("thrown") and recovered from ("caught")
- Haskell uses an elegant mechanism called extensible exceptions to define exception types
- Extensible exceptions are like an algebraic datatype that has an unbounded number of constructors
- You can add your own custom constructors to provide for custom error handling
- This uses a mechanism called existential types (topic of an upcoming lecture)



Error-handling in the IO monad

- Error-handling requires two functions: throw and catch
- They are defined in the Control. Exception module
- throw has this type signature:

```
throw :: Exception e => e -> a
```

catch has this type signature:

```
catch :: Exception e \Rightarrow IO a \Rightarrow (e \Rightarrow IO a) \Rightarrow IO a
```

 Let's look at throw, catch, and Exception in more detail





Exception

- Exception is a type class which represents exception values
 - usually used with existential types
- Various instances of Exception exist which represent common exception cases
 - IOException is a record type used to represent typical exception values in the IO monad
 - ErrorCall is a datatype containing a String which is what the error function throws
 - ...and many others





throw

Recall the type signature of throw:

```
throw :: Exception e => e -> a
```

- Assuming e is an instance of Exception, throw raises an exception and "returns" a value of an arbitrary type a (like error)
- The return type doesn't matter because throw doesn't actually return!



catch

Recall the type signature of catch:

```
catch :: Exception e \Rightarrow IO a \Rightarrow (e \Rightarrow IO a) \Rightarrow IO a
```

- Assuming e is an instance of Exception, catch takes
 - a computation of type IO a that can (possibly) throw errors
 - an error handler of type (e -> IO a)
- and returns a new computation of type IO a that can handle errors thrown by the original computation





Example

Trivial example using error and catch:

```
bogus :: IO ()
bogus =
   catch
    (error "This is an error!") -- throws an error
    (\((ErrorCall s) -> putStrLn s) -- handles the error
```

Running this gives:

```
ghci> bogus
This is an error!
```





Extensible exceptions

- This system has one big advantage and one big disadvantage
- Big advantage: can define new Exception
 instances to model specific exceptional conditions
 that you want to handle
- Big disadvantage: can only catch exceptions in the Io monad, which is a *huge* limitation!
- Many computations of interest have exceptional situations, but do not need to be in the IO monad



To exception-handling monads

- All of the preceding material is a preample / motivation for the material I'll now present on errorhandling monads
- As such, you can forget about it!
 - Read the Hoogle documentation on Control. Exception to learn more about this approach if you're interested
- Error-handling monads offer a much more elegant and specific way to deal with the same problem



"Notions of computation"

- Recall: monads are a general way of modelling different "notions of computation" so that functions that embody these notions can be composed as easily as pure functions
- We've seen
 - functions that may do I/O (the IO monad)
 - functions that may fail (the Maybe monad)
 - functions that may return multiple values (the list monad)
- Error-handling gives rise naturally to a whole family of monads of a particular structure





"Notions of computation"

- Consider a "notion of computation" that represents a computation that, in addition to mapping a value of type a to a value of type b, can also, in some circumstances, throw an error of some error type e
- We can write the type of functions embodying this notion of computation schematically as follows:

```
a --[possibly fail with a specified error condition]--> b
```



Error handling vs. the Maybe monad

- This is very reminiscent of the Maybe monad
- Contrast
- a --[possibly fail with a specified error condition]--> b
- with the characteristic functions of the Maybe monad:
- a --[possibly fail]--> b
- The main difference: an error handling monad is more specific about what errors can occur
- The Maybe monad lumps all failures together as Nothing values





The Either datatype

- Instead of Maybe, we'll use the Either datatype to represent our computations
- Either has this definition:

- Either is a binary type constructor (two type arguments a and b)
- Either has the kind * -> * -> *





The Either datatype

- Either can represent any data that can have one of two arbitrary types
- We will use the Left constructor to represent the error datatype and the Right constructor to represent normal (non-erroneous) results
- A simple choice is to have String as our error type, representing error messages
- Our characteristic computations then have the type
- a -> Either String b





The Either datatype

a -> Either String b

- Let's work with computations of this form to see how cumbersome it will be
- Let's start with an integer division function that checks for division by zero:

```
safe_divide :: Integer -> Integer -> Either String Integer
safe_divide _ 0 = Left "divide by zero"
safe_divide i j = Right (i `div` j)
```

- div is the integer (truncating) division function
 - actually works for any Integral type





safe_divide

Let's try this out in ghci:

```
ghci> 36 `safe_divide` 6
Right 6
ghci> 1 `safe_divide` 0
Left "divide by zero"
```

- So far so good...
- Let's try to use it with a simple computation
- Example: f i j k = i + j `div` k
- What would this look like if we used safe_divide instead of div?





safe_divide

Here we go:

```
f :: Integer -> Integer -> Integer -> Either String Integer
f i j k =
  case j `safe_divide` k of
  Left msg -> Left msg
  Right r -> Right (i + r)
```

- This is pretty complicated compared to the original function!
- Also, the output type is different from the input types, which will make composition difficult
- But let's keep going anyway...





safe_divide

- We can extend safe_divide to handle multiple error conditions
- For instance, let's say that trying to divide two integers that are not evenly divisible is an error
- Now we get:

```
safe_divide :: Integer -> Integer -> Either String Integer
safe_divide _ 0 = Left "divide by zero"
safe_divide i j | i `mod` j /= 0 = Left "not divisible"
safe_divide i j = Right (i `div` j)
```



divide

 Let's use safe_divide to write a function called divide that propagates the divide-by-zero error, but which handles the not-divisible situation by throwing out the remainder:

```
divide :: Integer -> Integer -> Either String Integer
divide i j =
  case i `safe_divide` j of
  Left "divide by zero" -> Left "divide by zero"
  Left "not divisible" -> Right (i `div` j)
  Right k -> Right k
```

Anything bother you about this code?





divide

```
divide :: Integer -> Integer -> Either String Integer
divide i j =
  case i `safe_divide` j of
  Left "divide by zero" -> Left "divide by zero"
  Left "not divisible" -> Right (i `div` j)
  Right k -> Right k
```

- The code is certainly not pretty, but...
- We are pattern matching on literal strings!
- This is not what error messages are intended to be used for
- Easy to get wrong (one typo and it's no good!)
 - Also not exhaustive (why?)





divide

```
divide :: Integer -> Integer -> Either String Integer
divide i j =
  case i `safe_divide` j of
  Left "divide by zero" -> Left "divide by zero"
  Left "not divisible" -> Right (i `div` j)
  Right k -> Right k
```

- The right way is to define a specific datatype to represent the kinds of errors we might find in some class of computations
- Here, we are doing arithmetic computations, so let's define a datatype called ArithmeticError and rewrite safe divide and divide in terms of it





ArithmeticError

```
data ArithmeticError =
    DivideByZero
    | NotDivisible
    -- could add more cases here
    deriving Show
```

- Now we don't need the error messages to represent the errors
- Translating our previous definitions is straightforward



ArithmeticError

```
safe divide :: Integer -> Integer
                 -> Either ArithmeticError Integer
safe divide 0 = Left DivideByZero
safe divide i j | i `mod` j /= 0 = Left NotDivisible
safe divide i j = Right (i `div` j)
divide :: Integer -> Integer
            -> Either ArithmeticError Integer
divide i j =
  case i `safe divide` j of
    Left DivideByZero -> Left DivideByZero
    Left NotDivisible -> Right (i `div` j)
    Right k -> Right k
```



ArithmeticError

- Limitation of this approach:
- If we want to add another **ArithmeticError** constructor, we might have to modify a lot of code
- We can instead use existential types (like Control.Exception does) to get extensible exceptions, but that would make the discussion too complicated, so we'll stick with error types that are simple algebraic datatypes
- Also, many custom error-handling situations can be described in terms of a datatype with a small number of constructors

A more complicated function

Consider this slightly more complicated function:

```
g i j k = i 'div' k + j 'div' k

    Let's write this using safe divide instead of div:

g :: Integer -> Integer -> Integer
       -> Either ArithmeticError Integer
gijk =
  case i `safe divide` k of
    Left err1 -> Left err1
    Right q1 ->
      case j `safe divide` k of
        Left err2 -> Left err2
        Right q2 \rightarrow Right (q1 + q2)
```





A more complicated function

- This is extremely gross!
- One line of code became seven lines
- We will see that monads will simplify this code significantly
- On to error-handling monads...





Error-handling monads

- To work with monads, we need to know what the type signature of the monadic functions are going to be
- In our case, using Either to make our result type gives
- a -> Either e b
- where e represents the particular error type (e.g. String or ArithmeticError)
- Regardless of which error type is used, the structure of the computations will be the same





- Note that we can also use functions with more arguments e.g. with this type signature:
- a -> b -> Either e c
- safe_divide and divide have type signatures like this
- This is OK because of currying; given the first argument the rest of the function has the type
- b -> Either e c
- which is the basic type of the computation



- Note that the basic form of monadic functions is
- a -> m b
- for some monad m
- Here, we have functions of the form
- a -> Either e b
- How can we reconcile the two?
- What is our monad m going to be in this case?





- Compare
- a -> m b
- a -> Either e b
- We can rewrite the latter as:
- a -> (Either e) b
- because type constructors can be curried just like functions can be!
- Either e has kind * -> *
- Either e is a unary type constructor
 - which is what a monad needs to be too!





- Comparing
- a -> m b
- a -> (Either e) b
- We can see that the Monad instance is going to be
 Either e
- This defines a whole family of monads, one for each error type e
- (This will become very significant when we discuss state monads)





The Monad instance

• The Monad instance for (Either e) looks like:

```
instance Monad (Either e) where
  -- definition of >>= for Either e
  -- definition of return for Either e
```

- We need to fill in the definitions for (>>=) and return
- Fortunately, one definition will work for all error types





The >>= operator

- As before, define the >>= operator based on what you want the monad to accomplish
- The type signature will be:

```
(>>=) :: Either e a -> (a -> Either e b) -> Either e b
```

- To define this, consider the two cases of
 Either e a in the first argument
- If the first argument is Left x, an error occurred previously and should be passed along
- If the first argument is Right y, then y is a nonerror result and should be passed to the function which is the second argument



The >>= operator

This gives us our definition:

- This definition is very similar to the corresponding definition from the Maybe monad
- Working by analogy, what should the definition of return be?



• return has the type signature:

```
return :: a -> Either e a
```

- The result of return x for some x cannot be
 Left y for any y, since this implies that an error occurred as the result of simply putting a value into the Either e monad
- Instead, the probable definition would be

```
return x = Right x
```

 As usual, we need to check this using the monad laws





Monad law 1:

```
Show: return x >>= f == f x
return x >>= f

→ Right x >>= f -- definition of return
→ f x -- definition of >>=
```

OK, so monad law 1 checks out



Monad law 2:

```
Show: mv >>= return == mv
Case 1: mv == Left x
mv >>= return

→ Left x >>= return

→ Left x -- definition of >>=
→ mv
```

Case 1 checks out



Monad law 2:

```
Show: mv >>= return == mv

Case 2: mv == Right y

mv >>= return

→ Right y >>= return

→ return y -- definition of >>=

→ Right y -- definition of return

→ mv
```

Case 2 checks out, so monad law 2 checks out



Monad law 3

- Verifying monad law 3 is somewhat long
- Left as an exercise for the reader, as usual
- The Monad instance for Either e is thus:

```
instance Monad (Either e) where
  return x = Right x
  -- or just: return = Right
  Left x >>= _ = Left x
  Right y >>= f = f y
```





Recall

Recall this function:

```
g :: Integer -> Integer -> Integer
       -> Either ArithmeticError Integer
gijk =
  case i `safe divide` k of
    Left err1 -> Left err1
    Right q1 ->
      case j `safe divide` k of
        Left err2 -> Left err2
        Right q2 \rightarrow Right (q1 + q2)
```





With monads

Using monads and the do notation, this becomes:

- Much cleaner and easier to understand!
- But still not as nice as:

```
g i j k = i 'div' k + j 'div' k
```





We might ask if we could write this function like this:

- Unfortunately, this does not type check!
- (i `safe_divide` k) and (j `safe_divide` k)
 have type Either ArithmeticError Integer
- + has type Integer -> Integer -> Integer in this context
- However, we can pull another rabbit out of our hat



 The module Control.Monad defines a function called liftM2 with this definition:

We can use this to simplify our definition even further



With liftm2, our definition becomes:

- + (in this context) expects both operands to have type
 Integer
- <+> expects both operands to have the type
 Either ArithmeticError Integer
- If we had one with type Integer and the other with type Either ArithmeticError Integer, what would we do?





Rewrite the function f (defined previously) to use
 ArithmeticError as the error type:

Now we can write this as:

```
f i j k = (return i) <+> (j `safe_divide` k)
where (<+>) = liftM2 (+)
```

Still a bit ugly, but it works and is concise





Limitations of monads

Note that there is a fundamental difference between

```
g i j k = i `div` k + j `div` k
```

and

```
g i j k = (i `safe_divide` k) <+> (j `safe_divide` k)
where (<+>) = liftM2 (+)
```

- The second example imposes a specific order of evaluation on the subexpressions: (i `safe_divide` k) will always be evaluated before (j `safe divide` k)
 - Not necessarily the case for the first example





Limitations of monads

- For some monads (IO monad, state monads), imposing a particular sequencing is extremely important; the code won't work properly without it
- For other monads (Maybe, list, Either e),
 sequencing may be irrelevant, but we get it anyway
- This is the price we pay for the benefits of monads
 - (Can use Applicative instead of Monad in this case)





Next time

- More error-handling monads
- Throwing and catching errors in the Either e monad
- The MonadError type class
- Functional dependencies

