More monads

Lecture 7 of CSE 3100 Functional Programming

Jesper Cockx

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Technical University Delft

Lecture plan

- The **Either** monad
- The list monad
- The **State** monad
- The **Parser** monad
- The monad laws

Recap: the **Monad** type class

Monad is a type class with functions return and (>>=) ('bind'):

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

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

A monadic action x:: m a can be seen as a computation that can perform some side effects before returning a value of type a.

Examples of monads: Maybe, IO.

The **Either** monad

We can see **Either** as a generalization of **Maybe**:

- Right takes the role of Just
- Left err is a more informative version of Nothing

```
instance Monad (Either e) where
  return x = Right x
  Left err >>= f = Left err
  Right x >>= f = f x
```

The list monad

We can see [] as another generalization of Maybe:

- [x] takes the role of **Just** x
- [] takes the role of **Nothing**
- Functions can have multiple outputs

instance Monad [] where

```
return x = [x]

xs >>= f = [y | x <- xs, y <- f x]
```

Using the list monad

Compare this with list comprehensions:

You've been using the list monad all this time!

The State monad

How to generate random numbers in Haskell?

```
-- chosen by fair dice roll
-- guaranteed to be random.
randomNumber :: Int
randomNumber = 4
```

... not like that!

Solution. Write a pure function that takes a random seed as input.

```
import System.Random
```

```
randomNumber :: StdGen -> (Int, StdGen)
randomNumber = random
```

```
> randomNumber (mkStdGen 100)
(9216477508314497915, StdGen{...})
```

Exercise. Roll 3 six-sided dice & add results.

Exercise. Roll 3 six-sided dice & add results.

```
roll :: StdGen -> (Int, StdGen)
roll gen = let (x, newGen) = random gen
           in (x `mod` 6, newGen)
roll3 :: StdGen -> (Int, StdGen)
roll3 gen0 =
  let (die1, gen1) = roll gen0
      (die2, gen2) = roll gen1
      (die3, gen3) = roll gen2
      (die1+die2+die3, gen3)
  in
```

Can't we do better??

The **State** monad

```
newtype State s a = State (s -> (a,s))
get :: State s s
get = State (\st -> (st,st))

put :: s -> State s ()
put st = State (\_ -> ((),st))
```

Rolling dice with **State**

```
randomInt :: State StdGen Int
randomInt = State random
roll :: State StdGen Int
roll = do
  x <- randomInt
  return (x `mod` 6)
roll3 :: State StdGen Int
roll3 = do
  die1 <- roll
  die2 <- roll
  die3 <- roll
  return (die1+die2+die3)
```

Functor and applicative for **State**

```
instance Functor (State s) where
  fmap f (State h) =
    State (\oldSt ->
     let (x, newSt) = h oldSt
      in (f x, newSt)
instance Applicative (State s) where
 pure x = State (\st -> (x, st))
  State q <*> State h =
    State (\oldSt ->
     let (f, newSt1) = q oldSt
          (x, newSt2) = h newSt1
      in (f x, newSt2)
```

Binding the state

```
runState :: State s a -> s -> (a,s)
runState (State h) = h
instance Monad (State s) where
 return x = pure x
  State h >>= f =
    State (\oldSt ->
      let (x, newSt) = h oldSt
      in runState (f x) newSt)
```

Reader and Writer monads

The reader monad gives access to an extra input of some type r:

```
newtype Reader r a = Reader (r -> a)
```

The writer monad allows writing some output of type w:

```
newtype Writer w a = Writer (w, a)
```

See exercises on Weblab!

Monadic parsing

What is a parser?

At a basic level, a parser turns strings into objects of some type:

```
type Parser a = String -> a

item :: Parser Char
item (x:[]) = x
item _ = error "Parse failed!"
```

Problems:

- No option for graceful failure
- Hard to compose parsers

A better parser

```
type Parser a =
   String -> [(a,String)]

item :: Parser Char
item (x:xs) = [(x,xs)]
item [] = []
```

- Parsing returns a list of possible parses
- Each parse comes with a 'remainder' of the string for further parsing

A parser of things
is a function from strings
to lists of pairs
of things and strings!

A monadic parser

We wrap **Parser** in a **newtype** to make it into a monad:

```
newtype Parser a =
   Parser (String -> [(a,String)])
parse :: Parser a -> String -> [(a,String)]
parse (Parser f) = f

instance Functor Parser where ...
instance Applicative Parser where ...
instance Monad Parser where ...
```

See book for implementation of instances.

Writing monadic parsers

We can now make use of **do** notation to write parsers:

```
three :: Parser (Char, Char)
three = do
  c1 <- item
  c2 <- item
  c3 <- item
  return (c1,c3)</pre>
```

Writing monadic parsers

We can now make use of **do** notation to write parsers:

```
word :: Parser String
word = do
  c <- item
  if (isSpace c) then
    return ""
  else do
    cs <- word
    return (c:cs)
```

Picky parsers

We can define a parser empty that always fails:

```
empty :: Parser a
empty = Parser []
```

This is useful to write parsers that only succeed when some property is satisfied:

```
digit :: Parser Char
digit = sat isDigit
```

Choosing between parses

We can combine two parsers by using the second one if the first one fails:

```
(<|>) :: Parser a -> Parser a -> Parser a
(Parser f <|> Parser q) = Parser
  (\inp -> case f inp of
    [] -> q inp
    result -> result)
-- Parsing an optional thing
maybeP :: Parser a -> Parser (Maybe a)
maybeP p = fmap Just p <|> pure Nothing
```

Parsing several things

some repeats a parser one or more times.many repeats a parser zero or more times.

```
some many :: Parser a -> Parser [a]
some x = pure (:) <*> x <*> many x
many x = some x <|> pure []

nat :: Parser Int
nat = do xs <- some digit
    return (read xs)</pre>
```

Live coding: parsing boolean expressions

Assignment. Develop a parser for the following grammar:

where atom can be any string of letters.

The Monad laws

Type class laws

Most Haskell type classes have one or more laws that instances should satisfy.

These laws are not checked by the compiler, but they form a contract between Haskell programmers.

So check¹ that your implementation satisfies the laws when implementing an instance!

¹for example, using a QuickCheck property

Example: Laws of **Eq**

- Reflexivity: x == x = True
- Symmetry: (x == y) = (y == x)
- Transitivity: If

$$(x == y \&\& y == z) = True$$
 then $x == z = True$

- Substitutivity: If x == y = True then f $x == f y = True^2$
- **Negation:** x /= y = not (x == y)

²where $f :: a \rightarrow b$ and a and b are both instances of Eq.

The functor laws

fmap f applies f to each value stored in the container, but should leave the structure of the container unchanged.

This is expressed formally by the functor laws:

```
fmap id = id

fmap (g . h) = fmap g . fmap h
```

A bogus instance of **Functor**

```
instance Functor Tree where
fmap f (Leaf x) = Leaf (f x)
fmap f (Node l r) =
Node (fmap f r) (fmap f l)
```

A bogus instance of **Functor**

instance Functor Tree where

```
fmap f (Node l r) =
   Node (fmap f r) (fmap f l)

This does not satisfy the law fmap id = id:
fmap id (Node (Leaf 1) (Leaf 2))
= Node (Leaf 2) (Leaf 1)

id (Node (Leaf 1) (Leaf 2))
```

fmap f (Leaf x) = Leaf (f x)

The four laws of Applicative

```
pure id <*> x = x
pure (f x) = pure f <*> pure x
mf < *> pure y
  = pure (\q -> q y) <*> mf
X < * > (V < * > Z)
  = (pure (.) <*> x <*> y) <*> z
```

The Monad Laws

Monad law #1: Left identity

return
$$x \gg f$$
 = f x

Intuition. We can remove return statements in the middle of a do-block.

do	do
• • •	
y <- return x	f x
foo y	

Monad law #2: Right identity

$$mx >>= (\x -> return x) = mx$$

Intuition. We can eliminate return at the end of a do-block.

Monad law #3: The associativity law

$$(mx >>= f) >>= g$$
=
 $mx >>= (\x -> (f x >>= g))$

Intuition. We can 'flatten' nested do -blocks.

What's next?

Next lecture: Laziness and infinite data

To do:

- Read the book:
 - Today: section 13.1-13.8
 - Next lecture: 15.1-15.5, 15.7
- Start on week 4 exercises on Weblab