### Monads

Fast Track to Haskell

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## The plan

Let us look at a number of datatypes and typical programming problems involving these types ...



# Maybe

# The Maybe type

```
data Maybe a = Nothing
| Just a
```

The Maybe datatype is often used to encode failure or an exceptional value:

```
\begin{array}{l} \text{lookup} :: (\text{Eq a}) \Rightarrow a \rightarrow [(a,b)] \rightarrow \text{Maybe b} \\ \text{find} \quad :: (a \rightarrow \text{Bool}) \rightarrow [a] \rightarrow \text{Maybe a} \end{array}
```



# Encoding exceptions using Maybe

Assume that we have a data structure with the following operations:

```
up, down, right :: Loc \rightarrow Maybe Loc update :: (Int \rightarrow Int) \rightarrow Loc \rightarrow Loc
```

Given a location  $I_1$ , we want to move up, right, down, and update the resulting position with using update (+1)... Each of the steps can fail.





```
 \begin{array}{l} \textbf{case up } I_1 \textbf{ of} \\ \textbf{Nothing} \rightarrow \textbf{Nothing} \\ \textbf{Just } I_2 \rightarrow \textbf{case right } I_2 \textbf{ of} \\ \textbf{Nothing} \rightarrow \textbf{Nothing} \\ \textbf{Just } I_3 \rightarrow \textbf{case down } I_3 \textbf{ of} \\ \textbf{Nothing} \rightarrow \textbf{Nothing} \rightarrow \textbf{Nothing} \\ \textbf{Just } I_4 \rightarrow \textbf{Just (update (+ 1) } I_4) \\ \end{array}
```

```
 \begin{array}{c} \textbf{case up } \textbf{I}_1 \textbf{ of} \\ \textbf{Nothing} \rightarrow \textbf{Nothing} \\ \textbf{Just } \textbf{I}_2 \rightarrow \textbf{case right } \textbf{I}_2 \textbf{ of} \\ \textbf{Nothing} \rightarrow \textbf{Nothing} \\ \textbf{Just } \textbf{I}_3 \rightarrow \textbf{case down I}_3 \textbf{ of} \\ \textbf{Nothing} \rightarrow \textbf{Nothing} \\ \textbf{Just } \textbf{I}_4 \rightarrow \textbf{Just (update (+ 1) I}_4) \end{array}
```





```
 \begin{array}{c} \textbf{case up } I_1 \textbf{ of} \\ \textbf{Nothing} \rightarrow \textbf{Nothing} \\ \textbf{Just } I_2 \rightarrow \textbf{case right } I_2 \textbf{ of} \\ \textbf{Nothing} \rightarrow \textbf{Nothing} \\ \textbf{Just } I_3 \rightarrow \textbf{case down } I_3 \textbf{ of} \\ \textbf{Nothing} \rightarrow \textbf{Nothing} \\ \textbf{Just } I_4 \rightarrow \textbf{Just (update (+ 1) } I_4) \\ \end{array}
```

#### In essence, we need

- a way to sequence function calls and use their results if successful
- a way to modify or produce successful results.





```
 \begin{array}{l} \textbf{case up } I_1 \textbf{ of} \\ \textbf{Nothing} \rightarrow \textbf{Nothing} \\ \textbf{Just } I_2 \rightarrow \textbf{case } \textbf{right } I_2 \textbf{ of} \\ \textbf{Nothing} \rightarrow \textbf{Nothing} \\ \textbf{Just } I_3 \rightarrow \textbf{case } \textbf{down } I_3 \textbf{ of} \\ \textbf{Nothing} \rightarrow \textbf{Nothing} \rightarrow \textbf{Nothing} \\ \textbf{Just } I_4 \rightarrow \textbf{Just } (\textbf{update } (+1) I_4) \\ \end{array}
```

```
(\ggg) :: \mathsf{Maybe} \ a \to (a \to \mathsf{Maybe} \ b) \to \mathsf{Maybe} \ b \mathsf{f} \ggg \mathsf{g} = \mathbf{case} \ \mathsf{f} \ \mathbf{of} \mathsf{Nothing} \to \mathsf{Nothing} \mathsf{Just} \ x \to \mathsf{g} \ x
```





```
\begin{array}{ccc} \text{up I}_1 & \Longrightarrow & \\ & \lambda \text{ I}_2 & \rightarrow \text{case right I}_2 \text{ of} & \\ & & \text{Nothing} \rightarrow \text{Nothing} \\ & & \text{Just I}_3 & \rightarrow \text{case down I}_3 \text{ of} \\ & & & \text{Nothing} \rightarrow \text{Nothing} \\ & & & \text{Just I}_4 & \rightarrow \text{Just (update (+ 1) I}_4) \end{array}
```

```
(\ggg) :: \mathsf{Maybe} \ a \to (a \to \mathsf{Maybe} \ b) \to \mathsf{Maybe} \ b \mathsf{f} \ggg \mathsf{g} = \mathbf{case} \ \mathsf{f} \ \mathbf{of} \mathsf{Nothing} \to \mathsf{Nothing} \mathsf{Just} \ x \to \mathsf{g} \ x
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```





## Sequencing and embedding

```
up I_1 \gg \lambda I_2 \rightarrow \text{right } I_2 \gg \lambda I_3 \rightarrow \text{down } I_3 \gg \lambda I_4 \rightarrow \text{Just (update (+ 1) } I_4)
```

## Sequencing and embedding

```
up I_1 \gg \lambda I_2 \rightarrow \text{right } I_2 \gg \lambda I_3 \rightarrow \text{down } I_3 \gg \lambda I_4 \rightarrow \text{return (update (+ 1) } I_4)
```

```
(\ggg) :: \mathsf{Maybe} \ a \to (a \to \mathsf{Maybe} \ b) \to \mathsf{Maybe} \ b f \ggg g = \mathbf{case} \ f \ of \\ \qquad \mathsf{Nothing} \to \mathsf{Nothing} \\ \qquad \mathsf{Just} \ x \to g \ x \mathsf{return} :: a \to \mathsf{Maybe} \ a \mathsf{return} \ x = \mathsf{Just} \ x
```





# Sequencing and embedding

```
up I_1 \gg \lambda I_2 \rightarrow \text{right } I_2 \gg \lambda I_3 \rightarrow \text{down } I_3 \gg \lambda I_4 \rightarrow \text{return (update (+ 1) } I_4)
```

```
(\ggg) :: Maybe \ a \to (a \to Maybe \ b) \to Maybe \ b f \ggg g = \textbf{case f of} \\ \text{Nothing} \to \text{Nothing} \\ \text{Just } x \to g \ x \text{return} :: a \to Maybe \ a \text{return } x = \text{Just } x
```

 $(up I_1) \gg right \gg down \gg return \circ update (+ 1)$ 

#### Observation

Code looks a bit like imperative code. Compare:

```
up I_1 \gg \lambda I_2 \rightarrow
right I_2 \gg \lambda I_3 \rightarrow
down I_3 \gg \lambda I_4 \rightarrow
return (update (+1) I_4)
```

```
I_2 := \text{up } I_1;

I_3 := \text{right } I_2;

I_4 := \text{down } I_3;

return update (+ 1) I_4
```

- ► In the imperative language, the occurrence of possible exceptions is a side effect.
- ► Haskell is more explicit because we use the Maybe type and the appropriate sequencing operation.

## A variation: Either

#### Compare the datatypes

```
data Either a b = Left a | Right b data Maybe a = Nothing | Just a
```



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data Either a b = Left a | Right bdata Maybe a = Nothing | Just a
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The datatype Maybe can encode exceptional function results (i.e., failure), but no information can be associated with Nothing. We cannot dinstinguish different kinds of errors.





## A variation: Either

#### Compare the datatypes

```
data Either a b = Left a | Right bdata Maybe a = Nothing | Just a
```

The datatype Maybe can encode exceptional function results (i.e., failure), but no information can be associated with Nothing. We cannot dinstinguish different kinds of errors.

Using Either, we can use Left to encode errors, and Right to encode successful results.





## Example

```
type Error = String

fac :: Int \rightarrow Either Error Int

fac 0 = Right 1

fac n | n > 0 = case fac (n - 1) of

Left e \rightarrow Left e \rightarrow Left e \rightarrow Right e \rightarrow Right e \rightarrow Right e \rightarrow Right e \rightarrow Left e \rightarrow Right e
```

Structure of sequencing looks similar to the sequencing for Maybe.





## Sequencing and returning for Either

We can define variations of the operatons for Maybe:

```
(≫) :: Either Error a \to (a \to \text{Either Error b}) \to \text{Either Error b}

f ≫ g = case f of

Left e \to \text{Left e}

Right x \to g x

return :: a \to \text{Either Error a}

return x = \text{Right } x
```

## Sequencing and returning for Either

We can define variations of the operatons for Maybe:

```
(≫) :: Either Error a \rightarrow (a \rightarrow \text{Either Error b}) \rightarrow \text{Either Error b}
f ≫= g = \underset{\text{Left } e}{\text{case f of}}
\underset{\text{Light } x \rightarrow g \ x}{\text{Left } e \rightarrow \text{Left e}}
\underset{\text{Right } x \rightarrow g \ x}{\text{return :: } a \rightarrow \text{Either Error a}}
\underset{\text{return } x = \text{Right } x}{\text{Right } x}
```

The function can now be written as:

```
fac :: Int \rightarrow Either Error Int

fac 0 = return 1

fac n | n > 0 = fac (n - 1) \gg \lambda r \rightarrow return (n * r)

| otherwise = Left "fac: negative argument"
```





## Simulating exceptions

We can abstract completely from the definition of the underlying <a href="Either">Either</a> type if we define functions to throw and catch errors.

```
throwError :: Error \rightarrow Either Error a throwError e = Left e
```



## Simulating exceptions

We can abstract completely from the definition of the underlying <a href="Either">Either</a> type if we define functions to throw and catch errors.

```
throwError :: Error \rightarrow Either Error a throwError e = Left e catchError :: Either Error a \rightarrow -- computation (Error \rightarrow Either Error a) \rightarrow -- handler Either Error a catchError f handler = case f of Left e \rightarrow handler e Right x \rightarrow Right x
```







State

## Maintaining state explicitly

- ▶ We pass state to a function as an argument.
- ► The function modifies the state and produces it as a result.
- If the function does anything except modifying the state, we must return a tuple (or a special-purpose datatype with multiple fields).

This motivates the following type definition:

**type** State 
$$s a = s \rightarrow (a, s)$$



## Using state

There are many situations where maintaining state is useful:

using a random number generator

#### type Random a = State StdGen a

using a counter to generate unique labels

#### type Counter a = State Int a

 maintaining the complete current configuration of an application (an interpreter, a game, ...) using a user-defined datatype

```
data ProgramState = ...
type Program a = State ProgramState a
```





## Example: labelling the leaves of a tree

data Tree a = Leaf a | Node (Tree a) (Tree a)

```
labelTree :: Tree a \rightarrow State Int (Tree (a, Int))
labelTree (Leaf x) c = (Leaf (x, c), c + 1)
labelTree (Node I r) c_1 = let (II, c_2) = labelTree I c_1 (Ir, c_3) = labelTree r c_2 in (Node II Ir, c_3)
```





## Encoding state passing

```
\begin{array}{l} \lambda s_1 \rightarrow \text{let (IvI }, s_2) = \text{generateLevel} \qquad s_1 \\ (\text{IvI'}, s_3) = \text{generateStairs IvI } s_2 \\ (\text{ms}, s_4) = \text{placeMonsters IvI' } s_3 \\ \text{in (combine IvI' ms}, s_4) \end{array}
```

## Encoding state passing



## Encoding state passing

```
\begin{array}{l} \lambda s_1 \rightarrow \text{let (IVI }, s_2) = \text{generateLevel} \qquad s_1 \\ (\text{IVI'}, s_3) = \text{generateStairs IVI } \ s_2 \\ (\text{ms}, s_4) = \text{placeMonsters IVI' } \ s_3 \\ \text{in (combine IVI' ms}, s_4) \end{array}
```

#### Again, we need

- a way to sequence function calls and use their results
- a way to modify or produce successful results.

```
\begin{array}{l} \lambda s_1 \rightarrow \text{let (IvI }, s_2) = \text{generateLevel} \qquad s_1 \\ (\text{IvI'}, s_3) = \text{generateStairs IvI } s_2 \\ (\text{ms}, s_4) = \text{placeMonsters IvI' } s_3 \\ \text{in (combine IvI' ms}, s_4) \end{array}
```

```
(>>=) :: State s a \rightarrow (a \rightarrow State s b) \rightarrow State s b f >>= g = \lambdas \rightarrow let (x, s') = f s in g x s' return :: a \rightarrow State s a return x = \lambdas \rightarrow (x, s)
```



```
\begin{array}{c} \text{generateLevel} & \gg \lambda \text{IvI} \rightarrow \\ \lambda s_2 \rightarrow \text{let (IvI', } s_3) = \text{generateStairs IvI } s_2 \\ (\text{ms, } s_4) = \text{placeMonsters IvI' } s_3 \\ \text{in (combine IvI' ms, } s_4) \end{array}
```

```
(>>=) :: State s a \rightarrow (a \rightarrow State s b) \rightarrow State s b
f >>= g = \lambdas \rightarrow let (x,s') = f s in g x s'
return :: a \rightarrow State s a
return x = \lambdas \rightarrow (x,s)
```



```
\begin{array}{ccc} & \text{generateLevel} & \gg \lambda \text{IvI} \rightarrow \\ & \text{generateStairs IvI} & \gg \lambda \text{IvI'} \rightarrow \\ \lambda s_3 \rightarrow \text{let (ms, s_4)} = \text{placeMonsters IvI'} \ s_3 \\ & \text{in (combine IvI' ms, s_4)} \end{array}
```

```
(>>=) :: State s a \rightarrow (a \rightarrow State s b) \rightarrow State s b f >>= g = \lambdas \rightarrow let (x,s') = f s in g x s' return :: a \rightarrow State s a return x = \lambdas \rightarrow (x,s)
```



```
\begin{array}{ccc} \text{generateLevel} & \ggg \lambda \text{lvI} \rightarrow \\ \text{generateStairs lvI} & \ggg \lambda \text{lvI}' \rightarrow \\ \text{placeMonsters lvI'} & \ggg \lambda \text{ms} \rightarrow \\ \lambda \text{s}_4 \rightarrow & \text{(combine lvI' ms, s}_4\text{)} \end{array}
```

```
(>=) :: State s a \rightarrow (a \rightarrow State s b) \rightarrow State s b
f >= g = \lambdas \rightarrow let (x,s') = f s in g x s'
return :: a \rightarrow State s a
return x = \lambdas \rightarrow (x, s)
```



```
\begin{array}{ccc} {\sf generateLevel} & \ggg \lambda {\sf IvI} \to \\ {\sf generateStairs\ IvI} & \ggg \lambda {\sf IvI'} \to \\ {\sf placeMonsters\ IvI'} & \ggg \lambda {\sf ms} \to \\ {\sf return\ (combine\ IvI'\ ms)} \end{array}
```

```
(>>=) :: State s a \rightarrow (a \rightarrow State s b) \rightarrow State s b
f >>= g = \lambdas \rightarrow let (x,s') = f s in g x s'
return :: a \rightarrow State s a
return x = \lambdas \rightarrow (x,s)
```





#### Observation

Again, the code looks a bit like imperative code. Compare:

```
generateLevel \gg \lambda \text{IvI} \rightarrow generateStairs IvI \gg \lambda \text{IvI}' \rightarrow placeMonsters IvI' \gg \lambda \text{ms} \rightarrow return (combine IvI' ms)
```

```
Ivl := generateLevel;
Ivl' := generateStairs Ivl;
ms := placeMonsters Ivl';
return combine Ivl' ms
```

- ► In the imperative language, the occurrence of memory updates (random numbers) is a side effect.
- ► Haskell is more explicit because we use the State type and the appropriate sequencing operation.





#### "Primitive" operations for state handling

We can completely hide the implementation of State if we provide the following two operations as an interface:

```
inc :: State Int () inc = get \gg \lambda s \rightarrow put (s + 1)
```

#### Labelling a tree, revisited

data Tree a = Leaf a | Node (Tree a) (Tree a)

```
\begin{split} \text{labelTree} &:: \text{Tree a} \rightarrow \text{State Int (Tree (a, Int))} \\ \text{labelTree (Leaf x)} & \quad c &= (\text{Leaf (x, c), c + 1}) \\ \text{labelTree (Node I r) c}_1 &= \textbf{let (II, c}_2) = \text{labelTree I c}_1 \\ & \quad (\text{Ir, c}_3) = \text{labelTree r c}_2 \\ & \quad \textbf{in (Node II Ir, c}_3) \end{split}
```

The old version, with tedious explicit threading of the state.





#### Labelling a tree, revisited

data Tree a = Leaf a | Node (Tree a) (Tree a)

```
labelTree :: Tree a \rightarrow State Int (Tree (a, Int))
labelTree (Leaf x) = get \gg \lambda c \rightarrow inc \gg return (Leaf (x, c))
labelTree (Node I r) = labelTree I \gg \lambdaII \rightarrow
labelTree r \gg \lambdaIr \rightarrow
return (Node II Ir)
```

New version, with implicit state passing, yet explicit sequencing.

(
$$\gg$$
) :: State s a  $\rightarrow$  State s b  $\rightarrow$  State s b x  $\gg$  y = x  $\gg$   $\lambda_- \rightarrow$  y

(The same definition as for IO ...)





List

# Encoding multiple results and nondeterminism

Get the length of all words in a list of multi-line texts:





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map length (concat (map words (concat (map lines txts))))

What is a notion of embedding and sequencing for computations with many results (nondeterministic computations)?





#### Encoding multiple results and nondeterminism

Get the length of all words in a list of multi-line texts:

```
map length (concat (map words (concat (map lines txts))))
```

What is a notion of embedding and sequencing for computations with many results (nondeterministic computations)?

- Embedding a normal computation into a nondeterminstic one can work by saying the computation has exactly one result.
- Sequencing operations can work by performing the second computation on all possible results of the first one.





#### Defining bind and return for lists

```
(\gg) :: [a] \to (a \to [b]) \to [b]
xs \gg f = concat (map f xs)
return :: a \to [a]
return x = [x]
```

Note that we have to use **concat** in (>>=) to flatten the list of lists.

# Using bind and return for lists

```
txts \gg \lambda t \rightarrow
lines t \gg \lambda l \rightarrow
words l \gg \lambda w \rightarrow
return (length w)
```

# Using bind and return for lists

```
\begin{array}{ll} \text{txts} & \ggg \lambda t \rightarrow \\ \text{lines t} & \ggg \lambda l \rightarrow \\ \text{words l} & \ggg \lambda w \rightarrow \\ \text{return (length w)} \end{array}
```

```
t := txts
l := lines t
w := words w
return length w
```

# Using bind and return for lists

```
txts \gg \lambda t \rightarrow
lines t \gg \lambda l \rightarrow
words l \gg \lambda w \rightarrow
return (length w)
```

```
t := txts
l := lines t
w := words w
return length w
```

- Again, we have a similarity to imperative code.
- ► In the imperative language, we have implicit nondeterminism (one or all of the options are chosen).
- In Haskell, we are explicit by using the list datatype and explicit sequencing using (≫).





#### Intermediate Summary

At least four types with  $(\gg)$  and return:

- for Maybe, (>>=) sequences operations that may fail and shortcuts evaluation once failure occurs; return embeds a function that never fails;
- for State, (>>=) sequences operations that may modify some state and threads the state through the operations; return embeds a function that never modifies the state;
- for [], (>>=) sequences operations that may have multiple results and executes subsequent operations for each of the previous results; return embeds a function that only ever has one result.
- for IO, (>>=) sequences the side effects to the outside world, and return embeds a function without any side effects.

There is a common interface here!



The **Monad** class

#### Monad class

#### class Monad m where

```
return :: a \rightarrow m \ a
(\gg) :: m \ a \rightarrow (a \rightarrow m \ b) \rightarrow m \ b
```

- The name "monad" is borrowed from category theory.
- A monad is an algebraic structure similar to a monoid.
- Monads have been popularized in functional programming via the work of Moggi and Wadler.





#### Instances

```
instance Monad Maybe where
instance (Error e) ⇒ Monad (Either e) where
   . . .
instance Monad [] where
   . . .
newtype State s a = State \{ runState :: s \rightarrow (a, s) \}
instance Monad (State s) where
   . . .
```



#### Instances

```
instance Monad Maybe where
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newtype State s a = State \{ runState :: s \rightarrow (a, s) \}
instance Monad (State s) where
   . . .
```

The **newtype** for **State** is required because Haskell does not allow us to directly make a type  $s \to (a, s)$  an instance of **Monad**. (Question: why not?)





#### There are more monads

The types we have seen: Maybe, Either, [], State, IO are among the most frequently used monads – but there are many more you will encounter sooner or later.





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The types we have seen: Maybe, Either, [], State, IO are among the most frequently used monads – but there are many more you will encounter sooner or later.

In fact, we have already seen one more! Which one?

The generators Gen from QuickCheck form a monad. You can see it as an abstract state monad, allowing access to the state of a random number generator.





#### Additional monad operations

Class Monad contains two additional methods, but with default methods:

```
class Monad m where
```

```
(\gg) :: m \ a \to m \ b \to m \ b
m \gg n = m \gg \lambda_- \to n
fail :: String \to m a
fail s = error s
```

While the presence of  $(\gg)$  can be justified for efficiency reasons, the presence of fail is often considered to be a design mistake.

# **do** notation

The **do** notation we have introduced when discussing **IO** is available for all monads:

```
generateLevel \gg \lambda |v| \rightarrow generateStairs |v| \gg \lambda |v|' \rightarrow placeMonsters |v|' \gg \lambda ms \rightarrow return (combine |v|' ms)
```

#### do

IvI ← generateLevel
IvI' ← generateStairs IvI
ms ← placeMonsters IvI'
return (combine IvI' ms)



#### do notation – contd.

```
up I_1 \gg \lambda I_2 \rightarrow
right I_2 \gg \lambda I_3 \rightarrow
down I_3 \gg \lambda I_4 \rightarrow
return (update (+ 1) I_4)
```

```
\begin{aligned} & \textbf{do} \\ & \textbf{I}_2 \leftarrow \textbf{up I}_1 \\ & \textbf{I}_3 \leftarrow \textbf{right I}_2 \\ & \textbf{I}_4 \leftarrow \textbf{down I}_3 \\ & \textbf{return (update (+ 1) I}_4) \end{aligned}
```

#### Tree labelling, revisited once more

Using Control.Monad.State and do notation:

```
data Tree a = Leaf a | Node (Tree a) (Tree a)
labelTree :: Tree a \rightarrow State Int (Tree (a, Int))
labelTree (Leaf x) = do
  c \leftarrow get
  put (c + 1) -- or modify (+ 1)
  return (Leaf (x, c))
labelTree (Node I r) = do
  II ← labelTree I
  Ir ← labelTree r
```

How to get at the final tree?

return (Node II Ir)





# Running a stateful computation

evalState :: State s a  $\rightarrow$  s  $\rightarrow$  a





# Running a stateful computation

evalState :: State s a  $\rightarrow$  s  $\rightarrow$  a

labelTreeFrom0 :: Tree  $a \rightarrow$  Tree (a, Int) labelTreeFrom0 t = evalState (labelTree t) 0



# Running a stateful computation

evalState :: State s a  $\rightarrow$  s  $\rightarrow$  a

labelTreeFrom0 :: Tree  $a \rightarrow$  Tree (a, Int) labelTreeFrom0 t = evalState (labelTree t) 0

There's also

runState :: State s a  $\rightarrow$  s  $\rightarrow$  (a, s)

(which is just unpacking State 's newtype wrapper).



#### List comprehensions

For list computations

```
map length (concat (map words (concat (map lines txts))))
```

we can use **do** notation

```
 \begin{array}{l} \text{do} \\ t \leftarrow \text{txts} \\ \text{I} \leftarrow \text{lines t} \\ w \leftarrow \text{words I} \\ \text{return (length w)} \end{array}
```

but also list comprehensions:

```
[length \ w \mid t \leftarrow txts, l \leftarrow lines \ t, w \leftarrow words \ l]
```



# More on do notation (and list comprehensions)

- Use it, the special syntax is usually more concise.
- Never forget that it is just syntactic sugar. Use (≫) and
   (≫) directly when it is more convenient.

And some things I've already said about IO:

- Remember that return is just a normal function:
  - Not every do -block ends with a return.
  - return can be used in the middle of a do -block, and it doesn't "jump" anywhere.



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- Use it, the special syntax is usually more concise.
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   (≫) directly when it is more convenient.

#### And some things I've already said about IO:

- Remember that return is just a normal function:
  - Not every do -block ends with a return.
  - return can be used in the middle of a do -block, and it doesn't "jump" anywhere.
- Not every monad computation has to be in a do -block. In particular do e is the same as e.
- ► On the other hand, you may have to "repeat" the **do** in some places, for instance in the branches of an **if**.





# IO vs. other monads

# The IO monad is special

- ► IO is a primitive type, and (>>=) and return for IO are primitive functions,
- ▶ there is no (politically correct) function  $runIO :: IO a \rightarrow a$ , whereas for most other monads there is a corresponding function, or at least some way to get an a out of the monad;
- values of IO a denote side-effecting programs that can be executed by the run-time system.



# Effectful programming

- IO being special has little to do with it being a monad;
- you can use IO an functions on IO very much ignoring the presence of the Monad class;
- ► IO is about allowing real side effects to occur; the other types we have seen are entirely pure as far as Haskell is concerned, even though the capture a form of effects.





# IO, internally

If you ask GHCi about IO by saying: i I0, you get

```
newtype IO a
```

- = GHC.Types.IO (GHC.Prim.State# GHC.Prim.RealWorld
  - $\rightarrow$  (# GHC.Prim.State# GHC.Prim.RealWorld, a #))
  - -- Defined in 'GHC.Types'

So internally, GHC models IO as a kind of state monad having the "real world" as state!



Monadic operations

#### The advantages of an abstract interface

There are several advantages to identifying the "monad" interface:

- ► We have to learn fewer names. We can use the same return and (>>=) (and do notation) in many different situations.
- ► There are all sorts of useful derived functions that only use return and (>>=). All these library functions become automatically available for every monad now.

### The advantages of an abstract interface

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- ► There are all sorts of useful derived functions that only use return and (>>=). All these library functions become automatically available for every monad now.
- There are many more monads than the ones we've discusses so far. Monads can be combined to form new monads.
- ▶ Application-specific code often uses just the monadic interface plus a few extra functions. As such, it is easy to switch the underlying monad of a large part of a program in order to accommodate a new aspect (error handling, logging, backtracking, ...).



# Useful monad operations

```
liftM
                  :: (a \rightarrow b) \rightarrow IO \ a \rightarrow IO \ b
                  :: (a \rightarrow IO b) \rightarrow [a] \rightarrow IO [b]
mapM
mapM :: (a \rightarrow IO b) \rightarrow [a] \rightarrow IO ()
forM :: [a] \rightarrow (a \rightarrow IO b) \rightarrow IO [b]
forM :: [a] \rightarrow (a \rightarrow IO b) \rightarrow IO ()
sequence :: [IO a] \rightarrow IO [a]
sequence :: [IO a] \rightarrow IO ()
forever :: IO a \rightarrow IO b
filterM :: (a \rightarrow IO Bool) \rightarrow [a] \rightarrow IO [a]
replicateM :: Int \rightarrow IO a \rightarrow IO [a]
replicateM :: Int \rightarrow IO a \rightarrow IO ()
when :: Bool \rightarrow IO () \rightarrow IO ()
unless :: Bool \rightarrow IO () \rightarrow IO ()
```

We had discussed these functions in the context of IO.





# Useful monad operations

```
liftM
                   :: Monad m \Rightarrow (a \rightarrow b) \rightarrow m a \rightarrow m b
                   :: Monad m \Rightarrow (a \rightarrow m b) \rightarrow [a] \rightarrow m [b]
mapM
                   :: Monad m \Rightarrow (a \rightarrow m b) \rightarrow [a] \rightarrow m ()
mapM
                   :: Monad m \Rightarrow [a] \rightarrow (a \rightarrow m b) \rightarrow m [b]
forM
forM
                   :: Monad m \Rightarrow [a] \rightarrow (a \rightarrow m b) \rightarrow m ()
sequence :: Monad m \Rightarrow [m a] \rightarrow m [a]
sequence :: Monad m \Rightarrow [m \ a] \rightarrow m ()
                   :: Monad m \Rightarrow a \rightarrow m b
forever
filterM
                   :: Monad m \Rightarrow (a \rightarrow m Bool) \rightarrow [a] \rightarrow m [a]
replicateM :: Monad m \Rightarrow Int \rightarrow m \ a \rightarrow m \ [a]
replicateM :: Monad m \Rightarrow Int \rightarrow m \ a \rightarrow m ()
                   :: Monad m \Rightarrow Bool \rightarrow m () \rightarrow m ()
when
unless
                   :: Monad m \Rightarrow Bool \rightarrow m () \rightarrow m ()
```

They're actually all overloaded! Try to infer what each of these mean for Maybe, State and [].

Well-Typed

## Example: labelling a rose tree

data Rose a = Fork a [Rose a]

Each node has a (possibly empty) list of subtrees.



## Example: labelling a rose tree

```
data Rose a = Fork a [Rose a]
```

Each node has a (possibly empty) list of subtrees.

```
labelRose :: Rose a \rightarrow State Int (Rose (a, Int))
labelRose (Fork x cs) = do

c \leftarrow get
put (c + 1)
lcs \leftarrow mapM labelRose cs
return (Fork (x, c) lcs)
```



#### Questions

What do you think these will evaluate to:

```
replicateM 2 [1..3] mapM return [1..3] sequence [[1,2],[3,4],[5,6]] mapM (flip lookup [(1,'x'),(2,'y'),(3,'z')]) [1..3] mapM (flip lookup [(1,'x'),(2,'y'),(3,'z')]) [1,4,3] evalState (replicateM_5 (modify (+2)) \gg get) 0
```



```
liftM :: (Monad m) \Rightarrow (a \rightarrow b) \rightarrow m a \rightarrow m b fmap :: (Functor f) \Rightarrow (a \rightarrow b) \rightarrow f a \rightarrow f b
```

- Nearly same type as fmap, but a different class constraint.
- For historic reasons, Functor is not a superclass of Monad in Haskell.
- But every monad can be made an instance of Functor, by defining fmap to be liftM.
- ► In practice, nearly all Haskell monads provide a Functor instance. So you usually have liftM, fmap and (<\$>) available, all doing the same.



#### A common pattern

Let's once again look at tree labelling:

```
labelTree :: Tree a \rightarrow State Int (Tree (a, Int))
labelTree (Leaf x) = do
  c ← get
  put (c + 1) -- or modify (+ 1)
  return (Leaf (x, c))
labelTree (Node I r) = do
  \parallel \leftarrow \text{labelTree } \parallel
  Ir \leftarrow labelTree r
  return (Node II Ir)
```

We are returning an application of (constructor) function Node to the results of monadic computations.



### A common pattern (contd.)

```
\label{eq:comp1} \begin{split} & \textbf{do} \\ & \textbf{r}_1 \leftarrow \textbf{comp}_1 \\ & \textbf{r}_2 \leftarrow \textbf{comp}_2 \\ & \dots \\ & \textbf{r}_n \leftarrow \textbf{comp}_n \\ & \textbf{return} \ (\textbf{f} \ \textbf{r}_1 \ \textbf{r}_2 \dots \textbf{r}_n) \end{split}
```



#### A common pattern (contd.)

```
\label{eq:comp1} \begin{split} & r_1 \leftarrow \text{comp}_1 \\ & r_2 \leftarrow \text{comp}_2 \\ & \dots \\ & r_n \leftarrow \text{comp}_n \\ & \text{return (f } r_1 \ r_2 \dots r_n) \end{split}
```

This isn't type correct:

```
f comp_1 comp_2 ... comp_n
```



### A common pattern (contd.)

```
\begin{aligned} & \text{do} \\ & r_1 \leftarrow \text{comp}_1 \\ & r_2 \leftarrow \text{comp}_2 \\ & \dots \\ & r_n \leftarrow \text{comp}_n \\ & \text{return } (\text{f } r_1 \ r_2 \dots r_n) \end{aligned}
```

This isn't type correct:

```
f comp_1 comp_2 \dots comp_n
```

But we can get close:

```
f < > comp_1 < * > comp_2 \dots < * > comp_n
```



## Monadic application

We need a function that's like function application, but works on monadic values:

```
\begin{array}{l} ap:: Monad \ m \Rightarrow m \ (a \rightarrow b) \rightarrow m \ a \rightarrow m \ b \\ ap \ mf \ mx = \mbox{do} \\ f \leftarrow mf \\ x \leftarrow mx \\ return \ (f \ x) \end{array}
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```

Types supporting return and ap have their own name:

```
class Functor f \Rightarrow Applicative f where pure :: a \rightarrow f a -- like return (<*>) :: f (a \rightarrow b) \rightarrow f a \rightarrow f b -- like ap
```

Every monad can be made into an applicative functor using the obvious instance definition.

Well-Typed

## Example

Exercise: Convince yourself that this is type correct.



#### Lessons

- The abstraction of monads is useful for a multitude of different types.
- Monads can be seen as tagging computations with effects.
- While IO is impure and cannot be defined in Haskell, the other effects we have seen can be modelled in a pure way:
  - exceptions via Maybe or Either;
  - state via State;
  - ▶ nondeterminism via [].
- The monad interface offers a large number of useful abstractions that can all be applied to these different scenarios.
- ► All monads are also applicative functors and in particular functors. The (<\$>) and (<\*>) operations are also useful for structuring effectful code in Haskell.



