

# Monads

CS242

Lecture 12

# Evaluation Rules: Static Scope

$$\frac{}{E \vdash x \rightarrow E(x)}$$

[Var]

$$\frac{}{E \vdash \lambda x.e \rightarrow \langle \lambda x.e, E \rangle}$$

[Abs]

$$\frac{}{E \vdash i \rightarrow i}$$

[Int]

$$\frac{\begin{array}{l} E \vdash e_1 \rightarrow \langle \lambda x.e_0, E' \rangle \\ E \vdash e_2 \rightarrow v \\ E'[x:v] \vdash e_0 \rightarrow v' \end{array}}{E \vdash e_1 e_2 \rightarrow v'}$$

[App]

Note:  $E[x:v]$  is the same environment as  $E, x:v$ .  $E$  is extended (or updated if  $x$  is already present) at point  $x$  to return  $v$ .

# Review: State

Evaluation rules have the form

$$E, S \vdash e \rightarrow v, S'$$

Expressions evaluate to a value and update the state.

# Evaluation Rules with State

$$\frac{}{E, S \vdash x \rightarrow E(x), S}$$

[Var]

$$\frac{}{E, S \vdash \lambda x.e \rightarrow \langle \lambda x.e, E \rangle, S}$$

[Abs]

$$\frac{}{E, S \vdash i \rightarrow i, S}$$

[Int]

$$E, S_0 \vdash e_1 \rightarrow \langle \lambda x.e_0, E' \rangle, S_1$$

$$E, S_1 \vdash e_2 \rightarrow v, S_2$$

$$E'[x: v], S_2 \vdash e_0 \rightarrow v', S_3$$

$$l \notin \text{dom}(S)$$

[New]

$$E, S \vdash \text{new} \rightarrow l, S[l = 0]$$

$$\frac{}{E, S_0 \vdash e_1 e_2 \rightarrow v', S_3}$$

[App]

# Another Feature: Exceptions

Evaluation rules have one of two forms

$E \vdash e \rightarrow v$                       evaluation produces a normal value

$E \vdash e \rightarrow \text{Exc}(v)$                   evaluation produces an exception

In the second case further evaluation must be *strict* in the exception:  
Once produced the exception propagates through all other  
computation until caught or it is the result of the computation.

# Evaluation Rules with Exceptions

$\frac{}{E \vdash x \rightarrow E(x)}$	[Var]	$\frac{E \vdash e_1 \rightarrow \text{Exc}(v)}{E \vdash e_1 e_2 \rightarrow \text{Exc}(v)}$	[AppE1]
$\frac{}{E \vdash i \rightarrow i}$	[Int]	$\frac{E \vdash e_1 \rightarrow \langle \lambda x.e_0, E' \rangle \quad E \vdash e_2 \rightarrow \text{Exc}(v)}{E \vdash e_1 e_2 \rightarrow \text{Exc}(v)}$	[AppE2]
$\frac{}{E \vdash \lambda x.e \rightarrow \langle \lambda x.e, E \rangle}$	[Abs]	$\frac{E \vdash e_1 \rightarrow \langle \lambda x.e_0, E' \rangle \quad E \vdash e_2 \rightarrow v}{E' [x: v] \vdash e_0 \rightarrow v'}$	[App]
$\frac{}{E \vdash e \rightarrow v}$	[Raise]	$E \vdash e_1 e_2 \rightarrow v'$	
$E \vdash \text{raise } e \rightarrow \text{Exc}(v)$			

# Beyond Pure Lambda Calculus

- What do lambda calculus+state and lambda calculus+exceptions have in common?
- Three things
  - They are both lambda calculus + “side information”
  - There are new primitives for manipulating the side information
  - If the extra primitives are not used, the behavior is pure lambda calculus
- This is how programming languages are often described
  - A core functional part (lambda calculus)
  - Plus additional features that go beyond pure functions

# But Why Not Pure Lambda Calculus?

- Why not make the state an explicit argument to functions?
  - A function  $a \rightarrow b$  that works on state could have a type  $a * s \rightarrow b * s$
- But this exposes the state; the programmer must explicitly manage it.
- An alternative signature:  $a \rightarrow (s \rightarrow b * s)$
- Factor out  $M\ b = s \rightarrow b * s$  as an abstract data type
  - $M\ b$  is a *state transformer*



# Language Features

- There are many non-functional language features that have similar properties:
- Continuations
- (Certain styles of) concurrency
- Nondeterminism
- Random numbers
- ...

# Monads

- We can abstract the common part of these language features
  - Sequencing to thread the extra information through the computation
- Enables us to *program* these features in pure lambda calculus
  - In a concise way
- More general than the state transformer abstraction
  - Monads are an abstraction for defining such abstractions

# Types

- A monad  $M\ a$  is an abstract type
  - The implementation of  $M$  is hidden
- The “normal” type is  $a$
- The extra information is hidden in the abstraction

# Operations

return:  $a \rightarrow M\ a$

*A function for creating an element of a monad.*

bind:  $M\ a \rightarrow (a \rightarrow M\ b) \rightarrow M\ b$

*Sequencing: Take an element of a monad, unwrap the value inside, and apply a function returning an element of the monad with a possibly different type.*

Bind is usually written  $v \gg= f$ , for monad value  $v$  and function  $f$ .

# Discussion

- One take: Not much here!
  - Pretty basic
- A second take: Just the right abstraction, and simple!
  - It turns out that **return**/**bind** are enough to implement many language features within the lambda calculus
- Keep in mind that **return** and **bind** are different for each monad
  - We have to find appropriate definitions

# Partial Functions

- Start with a very simple monad
- An option type `Maybe(a)` is either a value of type `a` or nothing
- Useful for expressing the result of partial functions w/o exceptions
- Examples
  - `head: List(a) -> Maybe(a)` returns nothing if the list is empty
  - `div: int -> int -> Maybe(int)` returns nothing if the divisor is zero

# Partial Functions

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

Example use to compose partial functions **f** and **g**:

```
λx.let y = f x in  
    case y of  
        Nothing: Nothing  
        Just v: g(v)
```

# Partial Functions with Monads

```
data Maybe a =
```

```
    Just a
```

```
  | Nothing
```

```
-- monad M = Maybe
```

```
return = Just
```

```
v >>= f = case v of
```

```
    Nothing -> Nothing
```

```
    Just x -> f x
```



# Composing Partial Functions

Consider the composition of two partial functions **f** and **g**:

$\lambda x. x \gg= f \gg= g$

The **Maybe** monad handles the **Nothing** case transparently

- The case analysis is hidden inside of  $\gg=$
- Automatically short-circuits the computation if **f** returns **Nothing**

# Example

```
head x = case x of  
    Nil: Nothing  
    Cons(a,as) : Just(a)
```

```
-- take the head of the first list of a list of lists  
λl. return l >>= head >>= head
```

# The State Monad

return:  $a \rightarrow M a$

return =  $\lambda v. \lambda s. (v, s)$     -- note  $M a = s \rightarrow a * s$  where  $s$  is the state type

$>>= : M a \rightarrow (a \rightarrow M b) \rightarrow M b$

$p >>= f = \lambda s. \text{let } (v, s') = p s \text{ in } f v s'$

# Example Use

- increment a global counter each time function **foo** is called
- the state is a single integer

**foo** =  $\lambda x. \text{return } 3 \gg= \lambda v. \text{inc} \gg= \lambda z. \text{return } v$

**bar** =  $\text{reset} \gg= \text{foo} \gg= \text{foo}$

- **inc** and **reset** are new operations that manipulate the state

**inc** =  $\lambda i. (i+1, i+1)$

**reset** =  $\lambda i. (0, 0)$

# Nicer Syntax ...

-- increment a global counter each time function **foo** is called

-- the state is just a single integer

// interpret assignment := as bind, taking a value M a

// unwrapping the value of type a

```
foo x = do {  
    v := return 3  
    z := inc  
    return v }
```

# First Principles ...

- We want a stateful function of type  $a \rightarrow b$ 
  - Which is a pure function of type  $a \rightarrow s \rightarrow (b,s)$  if we make the state explicit
- The second piece  $s \rightarrow (b,s)$  is a state transformer
- How do we compose a state transformer  $s \rightarrow (a,s)$  and a stateful function  $a \rightarrow s \rightarrow (b,s)$ ?
  - This is what bind does.

# Discussion

- Return & bind do just a few things:
- The `e` in `return e` is a pure computation
  - Doesn't know about the state, can be written normally
- Bind handles the “plumbing” of the monad
  - Hides the manipulation of the state except through state primitives
  - And correctly sequences it through the computation

# Exceptions

```
data Exceptional e a =
```

```
    Success a
```

```
  | Exception e
```

```
-- monad M = Exceptional e
```

```
return: a → M a
```

```
return = Success
```

```
>>=: M a → (a → M b) → M b
```

```
v >>= f = case v of
```

```
    Exception l -> Exception l
```

```
    Success r -> f r
```

```
throw = Exception
```

```
catch e h = case e of
```

```
    Exception l -> h l
```

```
    Success r -> Success r
```



# Using Exceptions

Consider composition of two functions  $f$  and  $g$  that can raise exceptions:

```
 $\lambda x. \text{return } x \gg= f \gg= g$ 
```

Easy to add a handler for  $f$ :

```
 $\lambda x. (\text{catch } (\text{return } x \gg= f) h) \gg= g$ 
```

Or for both  $f$  and  $g$ :

```
 $\lambda x. \text{catch } (\text{return } x \gg= f \gg= g) h$ 
```

The threading of the exceptions is tedious without bind.

# The Continuation Monad

`newtype Cont r a = (a → r) → r` -- `r` is the result type of the computation

A continuation monad `M = Cont r`

`return: a → M a`

`return = λa.λk. k a`

`>>=: M a → (a → M b) → M b`

`c >>= f = λk. c (λa. f a k)`

`return 6 >>= λi. return (7 * i)`

# The Continuation Monad

- Allows building continuations by extending existing continuations
  - Continuations are composed in pieces
- Note there is no automatic translation
  - This is not a CPS transformation!
- The programmer must build up the desired continuations by hand

# Discussion

- Monads are a way of programming language features
- And it's just programming!
  - No need for a compiler
  - Can add or remove features as desired
- Examples of good uses:
  - A small part of the program needs state
    - Use the State monad just in that portion
  - Part of the program needs State and Exceptions
    - Again, just use these monads in the parts where they are needed

# Comments

- Three features are important to making monads work
- Higher-order functions
  - Bind is a higher order function
  - Many of the monads wrap higher order functions (continuations)
- Type checking
  - The type checker will complain if monads are used incorrectly
  - Necessary for most programmers to avoid getting tangled up

# Upsides

- Since it is ``just programming'', users can write their own monads
  - And they do
  - Many programming patterns are usefully abstracted as monads
- Monads are ubiquitous in Haskell
  - Where they were pioneered
- And have appeared in many other settings
  - Again, easy to adopt new ways of structuring software
  - Even in languages without monads built-in

# Downsides

- Monads are not a panacea
  - “It’s just programming”
- There are three main limitations
  - Multiple monads don’t compose particularly well
    - `State(Exceptions(LC))` has different semantics than `Exceptions(State(LC))`
    - Monads don’t commute
  - To use monads, your program must be structured using `return/bind`
    - Contagious: Whole program tends to end up being written monadically
    - Major hit when converting non-monadic code to monadic code
  - Performance is not what it could be if the features were built in
    - No free lunch – there is a reason compilers are large and complicated
- And the programs end up looking like C++!

# A New View of Languages

- We now view languages as having a pure core and a number of monads added on
- Most languages have the monads built in
  - State, Exceptions, Concurrency, ...
- But now we realize many of these features can be implemented within a language with higher-order features



# History

- Monads were first used in language semantics
  - An idea borrowed from category theory in mathematics
  - Instead of messy environments with state, exceptions, continuations, use monads to structure the execution rules
- Haskell is a pure functional language
  - The designers insisted on purity
  - But how to handle I/O with the outside world?
  - Monads provided an elegant solution
  - Built-in I/O was the first use of monads in Haskell