Monads in Scala

Bernie Pope

Outline

- The story behind monads.
- Monads in action.
- Desugaring Scala's 'for' comprehensions.

The story behind monads

The quest for modular semantics.

• The evaluation function:

[-]: Expression \Rightarrow Value

• The evaluation function:



A fancy way to write the name of the evaluation function.

• The evaluation function:

Syntax

• The evaluation function:

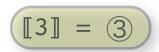
'Mathematical' values

• Some simple examples:

$$[3] = 3$$

$$[e_1 + e_2] = [e_1] \oplus [e_2]$$

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The syntactic symbol 3 has the 'value' (3) (the integer three).

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Some simple examples:

$$[3] = 3$$

$$[e_1 + e_2] = [e_1] \oplus [e_2]$$

+ is the syntactic symbol, and

⊕ is the (mathematical) addition function on integers.

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- But real programming languages are complex beasts:
 - side-effects (input/output).
 - ▶ non-termination.
 - exceptions.
 - recursion.
 - jumps.
 - ▶ non-determinism.

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- But real programming languages are complex beasts:
 - side-effects (input/output).
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 - exceptions.
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 - ▶ non-determinism.

None of these things can be modelled reasonably by a semantic domain containing just integers.

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- The domains get rather complicated.
- Combining them is tricky.
- Hard to see the wood for all the trees.
- We want modular semantics!

• Let 'T α ' be the type of *computations* yielding values of type α .

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- For example 'T N' is the type of some computation yielding an integer.
- We can specify T in different ways:
 - depending on what language features we want to have in the semantics.

Now we can make the type of the evaluation function more abstract:

 $\llbracket - \rrbracket : Expression \Rightarrow T Value$

Suppose we want to represent stateful computations.

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- A stateful computation is modelled as a function:
 - It takes a State as input.
 - ▶ It produces a State and a value as outputs.

• We need some way to manipulate 'T α' things in the evaluation function.

unit :
$$\alpha \Rightarrow T \alpha$$

bind : T
$$\alpha \Rightarrow (\alpha \Rightarrow T \beta) \Rightarrow T \beta$$

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embed a value in the space of T

• We need some way to manipulate 'T α' things in the evaluation function.

$$\left(\text{unit} : \alpha \Rightarrow \mathsf{T} \alpha \right)$$

bind :
$$T \alpha \Rightarrow (\alpha \Rightarrow T \beta) \Rightarrow T \beta$$

The input is an ordinary value. The result is a constant computation yielding that value.

• We need some way to manipulate 'T α ' things in the evaluation function.

unit :
$$\alpha \Rightarrow T \alpha$$

bind : T
$$\alpha \Rightarrow (\alpha \Rightarrow T \beta) \Rightarrow T \beta$$

What that means depends on how we define T.

• We need some way to manipulate 'T α' things in the evaluation function.

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bind:
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Construct a new computation by sequential composition.

• We need some way to manipulate 'T α' things in the evaluation function.

unit :
$$\alpha \Rightarrow T \alpha$$

bind:
$$T \alpha \Rightarrow (\alpha \Rightarrow T \beta) \Rightarrow T \beta$$

Again, what that means depends on how we define T.

• We need some way to manipulate 'T α' things in the evaluation function.

unit :
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Any instance of T supplied with unit and bind is a monad.

Unit and bind

• We need some way to manipulate 'T α' things in the evaluation function.

unit : $\alpha \Rightarrow T \alpha$

bind : $T \alpha \Rightarrow (\alpha \Rightarrow T \beta) \Rightarrow T \beta$

Any instance of T supplied with unit and bind is a monad.

* Conditions apply.

(Monad Laws)

• Particular monads typically provide additional primitive operations on T.

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get: T State

put : State \Rightarrow T 1

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• Recall the state monad: $T \alpha \stackrel{\text{def}}{=} State \Rightarrow (State \times \alpha)$

• It needs these primitives to be of any real use:

get: T State

put : State ⇒ T1

The type which only contains one value. Called Unit in Scala.

Using unit and bind in the evaluation function

Now we can extend the evaluation function to the monadic style:

$$[3] = unit (3)$$

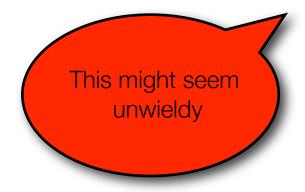
$$[e_1 + e_2] = bind [e_1] (\lambda v_1 \rightarrow bind [e_2] (\lambda v_2 \rightarrow unit (v_1 \oplus v_2)))$$

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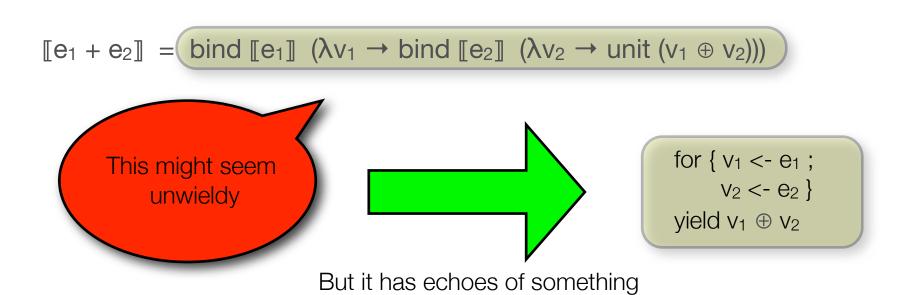
$$\llbracket e_1 + e_2 \rrbracket = \text{bind } \llbracket e_1 \rrbracket \text{ } (\lambda v_1 \rightarrow \text{bind } \llbracket e_2 \rrbracket \text{ } (\lambda v_2 \rightarrow \text{unit } (v_1 \oplus v_2)))$$



Using unit and bind in the evaluation function

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quite familiar to Scala programmers.

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- It was quickly realised that we can program with them too (Philip Wadler).
- We model T as some generic type constructor (with one parameter).
- unit and bind are functions which operate on the type chosen for T.

And what does it have to do with Scala?

• The List type is but one of many Scala types which can form a monad:

$$T \alpha \stackrel{\text{def}}{=} \text{List}[\alpha]$$

unit
$$x \stackrel{\text{def}}{=} x :: Nil$$

bind t f
$$\stackrel{\text{def}}{=}$$
 t.flatMap(f)

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• The List type is but one of many Scala types which can form a monad:

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bind t f
$$\stackrel{\text{def}}{=}$$
 t.flatMap(f)

def flatMap[B](f : (A) => Iterable[B]) : List[B]

flatMap applies the given function f to each element of the list t, then concatenates the result.

Monads in practice

The quest for modular programs.

Let's write an interpreter for a little language

• Grammar:

- Some example expressions and their expected values:
 - ▶ 3 → 3
 - ↑ 2 * 6
 → 12
 - 10 2 * 4 → 2
 -) (10 2) * 4 → 32

Scala types to represent expressions

```
abstract class Expr
case class BinOp (op:String, left:Expr, right:Expr) extends Expr
case class Number (number:Int) extends Expr
```

A recursive evaluation procedure

```
def eval(e:Expr) : Int = e match {
   case Number(n) => n
   case BinOp(o,l,r) => evalOp(o,eval(l),eval(r))
}
def evalOp(o:String, l:Int, r:Int) : Int = o match {
   case "*" => l * r
   case "-" => l - r
   case "+" => l + r
}
```

A recursive evaluation procedure

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def eval(e:Expr) : Int = e match {
   case Number(n) => n
   case BinOp(o,l,r) => evalOp(o,eval(l),eval(r))
def evalOp(o:String, l:Int, r:Int) : Int = o match {
    case "*" => 1 * r
    case "-" => 1 - r
    case "+" => 1 + r
                                         No monads here.
```

Let's add integer division to the language

Extend the grammar:

Some example expressions and their expected values:

- ▶ 10 / 3 → 3
- **1** 1 / 2 → 0
- 1 / 0 → error "divide by zero"

Let's add integer division to the language

Extend the grammar:

Some example expressions and their expected values:

- ▶ 10 / 3 → 3
- **1** / 2 → 0
- 1 / 0 → (error "divide by zero")

This is not an integer!

It is common to use exceptions to catch errors

```
try { println(eval(e)) }
catch {
  case ex: ArithmeticException => println(ex.getMessage)
}
```

No monads here, either.

```
def eval(e:Expr) : Option[Int] = e match {
   case Number(n) => Some(n)
   case BinOp(o,l,r) =>
      for {
          x \le - eval(1)
          y \le - eval(r)
          z \le - \text{evalOp}(o, x, y)
      yield z
}
def evalOp(o:String, l:Int, r:Int) : Option[Int] = o match {
    case "*" \Rightarrow Some(1 * r)
    case ''-" => Some(1 - r)
    case "+" \Rightarrow Some(1 + r)
    case ''/'' => if (r == 0) None else Some(1 / r)
}
```

```
def eval(e:Expr) : Option[Int] = e match {
   case Number(n) => Some(n)
   case BinOp(o,l,r) =>
       for {
          x \le - eval(1)
                                             The failure monad!
          y \le - eval(r)
           z \le - \text{evalOp}(o, x, y)
       yield z
}
def evalOp(o:String, l:Int, r:Int) : Option[Int] = o match {
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   case Number(n) => Some(n)
   case BinOp(o,l,r) =>
       for {
           x \le - eval(1)
                                      The original result type is embedded
           y \le - eval(r)
                                                 in Option.
           z \le - \text{evalOp}(o, x, y)
       yield z
}
def evalOp(o:String, l:Int, r:Int) : (Option[Int]) = o match {
    case "*" \Rightarrow Some(1 * r)
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   case Number(n) => Some(n)
   case BinOp(o,l,r) =>
       for {
          x \le - eval(1)
                                      "Some" encodes success (unit).
          y \le - eval(r)
          z \le - \text{evalOp}(o, x, y)
      yield z
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def evalOp(o:String, l:Int, r:Int) : Option[Int] = o match {
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def eval(e:Expr) : Option[Int] = e match {
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   case BinOp(o,l,r) =>
       for {
          x \le - eval(1)
                                          "None" encodes failure.
          y \le - eval(r)
          z \le - \text{evalOp}(o, x, y)
       yield z
}
def evalOp(o:String, l:Int, r:Int) : Option[Int] = o match {
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def eval(e:Expr) : Option[Int] = e match {
   case Number(n) => Some(n)
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       for {
          x \le - eval(1)
                                          Sugar for a chain of binds.
          y \le - eval(r)
          z \le - \text{evalOp}(o, x, y)
       yield z
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                                         If any individual statement fails,
          y \le - eval(r)
                                          the whole computation fails.
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    case "/" \Rightarrow if (r \Rightarrow 0) None else Some(1 / r)
}
```

Let's add multiple solutions to the language

Extend the grammar:

Some example expressions and their expected values:

```
12 → {12}
10?3 → {10,3}
2*(10?3) = {2*10,2*3} → {20,6}
1/0 → {}
(1/0)?1 → {}
```

 $\blacktriangleright 1 / (0?1) \mapsto \{1\}$

```
def eval(e:Expr) : Set[Int] = e match {
   case Number(n) => Set(n)
   case BinOp(o,l,r) =>
       for {
          x \le - eval(1)
          y \le - eval(r)
          z \leftarrow evalOp(o,x,y)
      yield z
}
def evalOp(o:String, l:Int, r:Int) : Set[Int] = o match {
    case "*" => Set(1 * r)
    case ''-'' => Set(1-r)
    case "+" \Rightarrow Set(1 + r)
    case ''/'' \Rightarrow if (r == 0) Set() else Set(l / r)
    case "?" \Rightarrow Set(1,r)
}
```

```
def eval(e:Expr) : Set[Int] = e match {
   case Number(n) => Set(n)
   case BinOp(o,l,r) =>
       for {
          x \le - eval(1)
                                       The non-determinism monad.
          y \le - eval(r)
          z \leftarrow evalOp(o,x,y)
       yield z
}
def evalOp(o:String, l:Int, r:Int) : Set[Int] = o match {
    case "*" \Rightarrow Set(1 * r)
    case ''-'' => Set(1-r)
    case "+" \Rightarrow Set(1 + r)
    case ''/'' \Rightarrow if (r == 0) Set() else Set(l / r)
    case "?" \Rightarrow Set(1,r)
}
```

```
def eval(e:Expr) : Set[Int] = e match {
   case Number(n) => (Set(n))
   case BinOp(o,l,r) =>
       for {
          x \le - eval(1)
                                     Non-empty set encodes success.
          y \le - eval(r)
          z \leftarrow evalOp(o,x,y)
      yield z
}
def evalOp(o:String, l:Int, r:Int) : Set[Int] = o match {
    case "*" => Set(1 * r)
    case "-" \Rightarrow Set(1 - r)
    case "+" \Rightarrow Set(1 + r)
    case "/" \Rightarrow if (r == 0) Set() else Set(1 / r)
    case "?" => (Set(1,r))
}
```

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def eval(e:Expr) : Set[Int] = e match {
   case Number(n) => Set(n)
   case BinOp(o,l,r) =>
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                                         Empty set encodes failure.
          y \le - eval(r)
          z \leftarrow evalOp(o,x,y)
       yield z
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def evalOp(o:String, l:Int, r:Int) : Set[Int] = o match {
    case "*" \Rightarrow Set(1 * r)
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    case "+" \Rightarrow Set(1 + r)
    case "/" \Rightarrow if (r == 0) Set() else Set(1 / r)
    case "?" \Rightarrow Set(1,r)
}
```

Using Set to encode multiple solutions

```
def eval(e:Expr) : Set[Int] = e match {
   case Number(n) => Set(n)
   case BinOp(o,l,r) =>
       for {
                                               If either I or r fails,
           x \le - eval(1)
                                           the whole computation fails.
           y \le - eval(r)
                                         Otherwise take the union of each
           z \leftarrow \text{evalOp}(o, x, y)
                                                    result.
       yield z
}
def evalOp(o:String, l:Int, r:Int) : Set[Int] = o match {
     case "*" \Rightarrow Set(1 * r)
     case ''-'' => Set(1-r)
     case "+" \Rightarrow Set(1 + r)
     case ''/'' \Rightarrow if (r == 0) Set() else Set(l / r)
     case "?" \Rightarrow Set(1,r)
}
```

Substantial changes from Option to Set

Set[]

Set[]

case "?" \Rightarrow Set(1,r)

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 - ▶ The essential recursive algorithm remains manifest ...

- A separation of concerns.
- Values are distinguished from 'computations of values'.
 - ▶ The essential recursive algorithm remains manifest ...
 - ... and independent of the underlying computational effects (failure, non-determinism).

Scala's 'for' comprehensions

Binds in disguise

• One generator:

for {
$$x \leftarrow e_1$$
 } yield e_2

• One generator:

for {
$$x < -e_1$$
 } yield e_2

• Is sugar for:

$$e_1 \cdot map (x \Rightarrow e_2)$$

• One generator:

for
$$\{ x \leftarrow e_1 \}$$
 yield e_2

• Is sugar for:

$$e_1.map (x => e_2)$$

More than one generator:

```
for { x <- e_1; generators} yield e_2
```

• One generator:

```
for { x < -e_1 } yield e_2
```

• Is sugar for:

$$e_1.map (x => e_2)$$

More than one generator:

```
for { x \leftarrow e_1; generators} yield e_2
```

• Is sugar for:

```
e_1.flatMap (x => for { generators } yield e_2)
```

One generator:

```
for { x < -e_1 } yield e_2
```

• Is sugar for:

```
e_1.map (x => e_2)
```

and desugar recursively

More than one generator:

```
for { x <- e_1; generators} yield e_2
```

• Is sugar for:

```
e_1.flatMap (x => for { generators } yield e_2)
```

```
for {
    x <- eval(1)
    y <- eval(r)
    z <- eval(p(0,x,y))
}
yield z</pre>
```

```
for {
   x \le - eval(1)
   y \le - eval(r)
   z \le - evalOp(o,x,y)
                                   desugars to
yield z
                                 eval(1).flatMap (x =>
                                     eval(r).flatMap (y =>
                                        evalOp(o,x,y).map(z \Rightarrow z)))
                                           is equivalent to
eval(1).flatMap (x =>
   eval(r).flatMap (y =>
       evalOp(o,x,y))
```

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for {
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```
for { x \leftarrow e_1 } yield e_2
```

• Is *really* sugar for:

```
e_1.flatMap (x => unit(e_2))
```

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 yield e_2

• Is *really* sugar for:

$$e_1$$
.flatMap (x => unit(e_2))

But for all monads this is equivalent to (what we saw before):

$$e_1.map (x => e_2)$$

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Which means Scala avoids the need for an explicit unit operation.

One generator:

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```

• But for all monads this is equivalent to (what we saw before):

```
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```

- Which means Scala avoids the need for an explicit unit operation.
- But you can imagine that 'yield' stands for 'unit'.

flatMap is the monadic bind operator

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• For Option:

```
def flatMap[B](f: A => Option[B]): Option[B] =
   if (isEmpty) None else f(this.get)
```

flatMap is the monadic bind operator

For Option:

```
def flatMap[B](f: A => Option[B]): Option[B] =
   if (isEmpty) None else f(this.get)
```

If any individual statement fails, the whole computation fails.

'for' comprehensions are overloaded

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- Scala's 'for' comprehensions work for any type which supplies:
 - a map function (for the single generator case)
 - ▶ a flatMap function (for the nested generated case)
 - ▶ a filter function (for guarded generators)

'for' comprehensions are overloaded

- Scala's 'for' comprehensions work for any type which supplies:
 - a map function (for the single generator case)
 - a flatMap function (for the nested generated case)
 - a filter function (for guarded generators)
- Lots of types in the standard library already do:
 - Any subclass of Iterable, Parser, Option

Conclusions

- There's more to learn about monads:
 - Monad transformers allow the features of different monads to be combined.
 - ▶ The monad laws (algebraic requirements).
- Monads are probably less useful in Scala than in Haskell:
 - Scala has more primitive effects built in (I/O, state, exceptions).
- Nevertheless, the monadic style offers a new way of thinking about how to structure code.

Homework

- Look up the implementation of flatMap for Set, and Parser.
- Read James Iry's blog "Monads are Elephants" (parts 1,2,3,4).
- Extend the expression evaluation program to support variables.