### Monads and IO in Haskell

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### Monads

Real world programming is more than producing a value:

- Handling errors or failures
- Managing states.
- Ooing IO, Graphics, Controlling Robots
- Handling non-determinism

How does one do this:

- Without compromising on the pure functional nature of Haskell.
- Without messing up the clean values-only producing code.

Answer: Use Monads

# **Handling Failures**

Here is a small language.

```
data Exp = Con Int | Add Exp Exp | Div Exp Exp
```

Here is an evaluator for the language:

```
eval :: Exp -> Int
eval (Con i) = i
eval (Add e1 e2) = eval e1 + eval e2
eval (Div e1 e2) = eval e1 'div' eval e2
```

# **Handling Failures**

Question: What is eval (Div (Con 2) (Con 0))?

An error issued by the *the Haskell interpreter*. (Not our interpreter)

To handle the error, we have to modify *our* interpreter:

```
data Maybe a = Just a | Nothing -- Just for normal values.
eval :: Exp -> Maybe Int
eval (Con i) = Just i
eval (Add e1 e2) = case eval e1 of
                        Nothing -> Nothing
                        Just i1 -> case eval e2 of
                                      Nothing -> Nothing
                                      Just i2 -> Just (i1 + i2)
eval (Div e1 e2) = case eval e1 of
                        Nothing -> Nothing
                        Just i1 → case eval e2 of
                                      Nothing -> Nothing
                                      Just 0 -> Nothing
                                      Just i2 -> Just (i1 'div' i2)
```

Can we bring back the simplicity of the earlier code?

# **Handling Failures**

A commonly occuring pattern is:

```
case m of
    Nothing -> Nothing
    Just i -> k i
Examples of m and k
case eval e2 of
    Nothing -> Nothing
    Just i2 -> (\i -> Just (i1 + i)) i2
case eval e1 of
    Nothing -> Nothing
    Just i1 -> k i1
  where k i = case eval e2 of
                  Nothing -> Nothing
                   Just i2 -> Just (i + i2)
```

#### Another common pattern is Just i

#### The Failure Monad

What are the types of m and k?

```
m :: Maybe a
k :: (a -> Maybe b)
```

case m of

#### Abstract out the pattern:

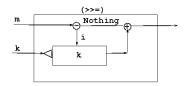
Also write a small abstraction

>>= is pronounced then.

```
return i = Just i
```

### The Failure Monad

Here is (>>=) in pictures:



Now write the interpreter using the abstraction:

# Failure Monad – Summary

- For certain applications we have to handle more than a pure value. Division by zero is an example.
- Introduce a datatype M a to capture the extended value.
- Introduce two function:
  - return :: a -> M a to to convert ordinary values to monadic values.
  - (>>=) :: M a -> (a -> M b) -> M b for monadic application.
     monadic functions.
- The datatype along with the functions is called a *Monad*.
- Write the application using the monad.
- This methodology is applicable in a very large number of situations.

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Now consider a language which has variables and state:

```
data Exp = V Var | PP Var | Add Exp Exp | Div Exp Exp data Var = A | B | C
```

To interpret this language we introduce states.

```
type State = Var -> Int
```

Apart from producing a value, eval also changes the state.

```
eval :: Exp -> State -> (Int, State)
```

So we introduce StateMonad a as a type synonym.

```
type StateMonad a = State -> (a, State)
eval :: Exp -> StateMonad Int
eval (V \ v) = \slash s \rightarrow (s \ v, \ s)
eval (PP v) = \s -> let i = s v
                     in (i, update s v (i+1))
eval (Add e1 e2) = \s -> let (i1, s1) = eval e1 s
                               (i2, s2) = eval e2 s1
                           in (i1+i2, s2)
eval (Div e1 e2) = \s -> let (i1, s1) = eval e1 s
                               (i2, s2) = eval e2 s1
                           in (i1/i2, s2)
```

Errors are being ignored.

Once again, using monads we can factor out common patterns of code.

```
\s -> let (i1, s1) = m s
in k i1 s1
```

The patterns occur in the following places:

#### Another place is

• The types of m and k are :

```
m :: StateMonad Int
k :: (Int -> StateMonad Int)
```

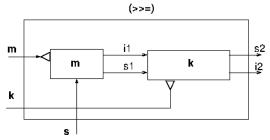
• In general:

```
m :: StateMonad a
k :: (Int -> StateMonad b)
```

• The functions return and (>>=).

```
return i = \s -> (i, s)
(>>=) m k = \s -> let (i1, s1) = m s
in k i1 s1
```

(>>=) in figures:



Now write the evaluator in terms of these abstractions:

```
eval :: Exp -> StateMonad a
eval (V \ v) = \slash s \rightarrow (s \ v, \ s)
eval (PP v) = \s -> let i = s v
                       in (i, update s v i+1)
eval (Add e1 e2) = eval e1 >>=
                      \i1 eval e2 >>=
                       \i2 return (i1 + i2)
eval (Div e1 e2) = eval e1 >>=
                      \i1 eval e2 >>=
                       \i2 return (i1 / i2)
```

As an exercise, find the value of

```
eval (Add (Var B) (PP B)) s
    where s v | v == A = 3
                v == B = 6
                v == C = 5
```

# Haskell support for Monad

A predefined class definition of the form:

```
class Monad m where
  (>>=) :: m a -> (a -> m b) -> m b -- then
  (>>) :: m a -> m b -> m b -- another form of then
  return :: a -> m a -- unit
  (>>) m k = m >>= \_ k
```

is a shorthand for

• And the syntactic sugars:

```
    do
    do

    i1 <- m1</td>
    m1

    i2 <- m2</td>
    m2

    m3
    m3
```

is a shorthand for

```
m1 >>= m1 >> m2 >>= m2 >> m2 >> m3
```

# **Haskell support for Monads**

The failure monad using Haskell support:

```
data Maybe a = Nothing | Just a
instance Monad Maybe where
   return i = Just i
   m >>= k = case m of
                   Nothing -> Nothing
                   Just i -> k i
eval :: Expr -> Maybe Int
eval (Con i) = return i
eval (Div e1 e2) = do
                       i1 \leftarrow eval e1
                       i2 \le eval e2
                       if i2 == 0 then Nothing
                       else return (i1 'div' i2)
```

# **Haskell support for Monads**

• The state monad using Haskell support:

```
type State = Var -> Int
data Var = A | B | C deriving Eq
data StateMonad a = SM (State -> (a, State))
instance Monad StateMonad where
  return i = SM (\st -> (i,st))
  (SM sx) \gg k = SM sx'
    where sx' = \st \rightarrow let (i1, st1) = sx st
                            SM sx'' = k i1
                        in sx', st1
```

# **Haskell support for Monads**

The state monad using Haskell support:

```
data Exp = V Var | PP Var | Add Exp Exp
eval :: Exp -> StateMonad Int
eval (V \ v) = SM (\s \rightarrow (s \ v, \ s))
eval (PP v) = SM (\s -> (s v, update s v (s v + 1)))
eval (Add e1 e2) = do
                        i1 \leftarrow eval e1
                         i2 \leftarrow eval e2
                         return (i1 + i2)
mainprog = let (SM sx) = eval (Add (V A) (PP B))
                      in fst (sx initialstate)
```

### **Exercise**

 Rewrite the evaluator so that it also calculates the number of additions and divisions.

### **Monad Laws**

- To qualify as a monad, it is not enough for return and (>>=) to merely have the types a -> M a and M a -> (a -> M b) -> M b.
   They should also satisfy certain monadic laws.
  - 1 return is a left identity of (>>=):

return 
$$i \gg k = k i$$

2 return is a right identity of (>>=):

$$m >>= return = m$$

(>>=) is associative:

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

• The type World captures the state of the Haskell runtime system.

```
type IO a = SM (World -> (a, World))
```

• IO a is declared as an instance of the class Monad. As a consequence:

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

come pre-defined.

- Any reading function returns a value and changes World.
- Any writing function returns () and changes World.
- The initial state is passed through the distinguished function main.

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• getChar :: IO Char



#### Performs IO action and returns a Char

• putChar :: Char -> IO ()



Takes a Char, Performs IO action, returns a ()

```
• putStr :: String -> IO ()
 putStrLn :: String -> IO ()
  putStrLn [] = putChar '\n'
  putStrLn (x:xs) = do
                       putChar x
                       putStrLn xs
getLine :: IO String
  getLine= do
             c <- getChar
             if c == '\n' then return []
             else do
                     cs <- getLine
                    return (c:cs)
```

## IO in Haskell

```
• readLn :: (Read a) => IO a
  reads any type belonging to the class Read
• print :: Show a => a -> IO ()
  prints any type belonging to the class Show
  main = do
            i1 <- readLn
            i2 <- readLn
            print (i1 + i2)
• getContents :: IO String
  reads the entire contents of a file lazily.
  main = do
            str <- getContents
            case (reads str) of
               [(i1, str1)] ->
```

[(i2, str1)] -> print (i1 + i2)

case (reads str1) of

#### Now for a game of Hangman

```
main = do
         hSetEcho stdin False
         putStrLn "I am going to give you a word to guess:"
         word <- getLine
         putStrLn $ progress "" word
         hangman ((length word) + 5) [] word
         hSetEcho stdin True
progress sofar answer = map (\c -> if c 'elem' sofar then c
                                   else '')
-- progress ['c', 'd'] "credit" = ['c', '_', '_', 'd', '_','_']
```

```
hangman 0 _ _ = putStrLn "Dead\n"
hangman n sofar ans | ans == progress sofar ans = putStrLn "Well done"
                    | otherwise = do
                                     putStrLn $ "You have" ++ show n ++
                                     "guesses left. Enter next guess\n"
                                     c <- getChar
                                     respond c n sofar ans
respond c n sofar ans | c 'elem' sofar = do
                                           putStrLn $ progress sofar ans
                                           hangman n sofar ans
                      l c 'elem' ans = do
                                         putStrLn $ progress (c:sofar) ans
                                         hangman n (c:sofar) ans
                      | otherwise = putStrLn $ progress (c:sofar) ans
                                    hangman (n+1) (c:sofar) ans
```