

Monad: **an abstraction; mechanism for performing computations that have side effects**

Why do we need them?

- They maintain referential transparency
- Example:

Violating referential transparency!

It doesn't take much to see the problem. Do we know what this will do:

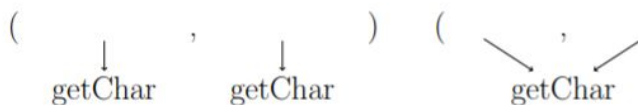
```
f1 = (primGetChar, primGetChar)
```

How about this:

```
f2 = let x = primGetChar in (x, x)
```

Violating referential transparency!

If we draw the graphs of f1 and f2 we can see the problem.



- IO brings in the concept of a token to reflect the state of the world beyond the program
  - Achieved by enforcing a structure onto all functions which perform IO operations
  - Can then hide all the plumbing into simple infix functions (e.g. >> to discard the result, >>= to pass it on)
  - `(>>=) :: IO a -> (a -> IO b) -> IO b`
  - `(>>) ! r = ! >>= (\_ -> r)`
- Adding return gives us a wrapper function (a -> IO a)

**So a Monad is an abstraction that represents a computation, which has results.**

- Provides return, and >>= (bind) at least
- Typically has primitive functions to make it useful e.g. getChar in IO
- Enables syntactic sugar of the 'do notation'
- Mechanical Translations of the do notation using >> and >>= ...

```
1  do x
2    y
3  =
4  x >> do y
5
6  do a <- x
7    y
8  =
9  x >>= \a -> do y
10
11 do x = x
```

**Other Monads**

- Maybe

```

1  return x = Just x
2
3  Nothing >=> k = Nothing
4  (Just x) >=> k = k x

```

- 
- Pre GHC 7.10 (March 2015) Monad class:

```

1  class Monad m where
2    (>=>)  :: m a -> (a -> m b) -> m b
3    (>>)   :: m a -> m b -> m b
4    return :: a -> m a
5    fail   :: String -> m a

```

- A fail implementation for Maybe might be: `fail _ = Nothing`

- State

- Similar to the concept of a world from IO except provides controlled access

- `newtype State s a = State a -> (a,s)`

- Where s is the type of the state we carry around, and a is the result of our stateful computations
- E.g. `f :: State String Int` is some computation maintaining a state of type string, and computing an Int
- For convenience this is written as a record

```

1  newtype State s a = State {
2    runState :: s -> (a, s)
3  }

```

- This becomes an instance of Monad with a few simple declarations

```

1  instance Monad (State s) where
2    return a = State (\s -> (a,s))

```

Combining two stateful actions looks like this:

```

1  m >>= k = State (\s -> let (a,s') = runState m s
2                          in runState (k a) s')

```

- Not very useful if we can't access the state...

```

1  get :: State s s
2  get = State $ \s -> (s,s)
3
4  put :: s -> State s ()
5  put s = State $ \_ -> ((),s)

```

- System.Random provides a random number generator (in IO monad because based off external param e.g. System.Time)
- System.Random is a natural fit for state because it returns a generator on each generation to prevent repeated numbers...

I will create a set of State monad based wrappers for the Generator actions

```
1 randomRState :: (Random a) => (a,a) -> State StdGen a
2 randomRState bounds = do g <- get
3                        (x,g') <- return $ randomR bounds g
4                        put g'
5                        return x
```

Actually, this is a bit long winded:

```
1 randomRState bounds = State (randomR bounds)
is sufficient!
```

So we wrap the generators in the state:

```
1 randomState :: (RandomGen g, Random a) => State g a
2 randomState = State random
3
4 randomRState :: (RandomGen g, Random a) => (a,a) -> State g a
5 randomRState bounds = State (randomR bounds)
```

- randomState and randomRState represent instances of the state monad where the state held is the generator and the value held is a number (or a bounds)
- So what is the State monad actually?
  - The monadic instance is defined as *State s* which means in functions with a the type signature with m a in it, the m is *State s*, which allows State actions to be chained (m a -> m b for example) without changing the state
  - *State s a* and *m a* then is actually just *someFunc :: s -> (a,s)*
  - What is runState? *runState* gives us access to our state constructor, i.e. to *someFunc :: s -> (a,s)*
  - From:  
<http://brandon.si/code/the-state-monad-a-tutorial-for-the-confused/>

## - Other 'Standard' Monads

- []

```
1 instance Monad [] where
2   return a = [a]
3   lst >>= f = concat (map f lst)
```

- Why are lists an instance of Monad?
  - Compare to maybe: computation in the maybe monad can return something or nothing, computation in the list monad can return nothing ([]), something, or some **things**
  - Semantics of bind:
    - Type signature: `[a] -> (a -> [b]) -> [b]`
    - Implementation is given above
    - "pulls out the values from the list to give them to a function that produces a new list."
    - As type-def shows, values are given to a function which converts individual items into a list of bs, because of this, use `concat (map f lst)`, as we want [b] not [[b]]

## Monad Laws

- Left identity: `return a >>= f = f a`
  - Right identity: `m >>= return = m`
  - Associativity: `(m >>= f) >>= g = m >>= (\x -> f x >>= g)`
- 
- Quite intuitive when thought about

## Applicative Functors

- Came along with GHC 7.10 (March 2015) to add extra abstraction
- The monad class was refactored to **Functor, Applicative, and Monad**
- **Functors**

- Can apply to 'wrapped' values

```
1 class Functor f where
2   fmap :: (a -> b) -> (f a -> f b)
```

Taking `Maybe` as our example, it can be made an instance of `Functor`

```
1 instance Functor Maybe where
2   fmap f Nothing = Nothing
3   fmap f (Just a) = Just (f a)
```

- `<$>` = `fmap` (infix notation)

- **Functor laws**

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

- **Applicatives**

- More structure than a functor, less than a monad
- Say we want to apply more args to `fmap` than one

```
fmap2 :: (a -> b -> c) -> f a -> f b -> f c
fmap2 (+) (Just 1) (Just 2) --
```

- But why stop at 2...

- **Applicative**

```
1 class Functor f => Applicative f where
2   pure :: a -> f a
3   (<*>) :: f (a -> b) -> f a -> f b
```

we can now write `fmap2 g x y = pure g <*> x <*> y`

- **The 7.10 Haskell Monad**

```
1 class Applicative m => Monad m where
2   (>>=) :: m a -> (a -> m b) -> m b
3
4   (>>) :: m a -> m b -> m b
5   m >> k = m >>= \_ -> k
6
7   return :: a -> m a
8   return = pure
9
10  fail :: String -> m a
11  fail s = errorWithoutStackTrace s
```

It's good to know the following. Given that:

```
1 fmap :: Functor f => (a -> b) -> f a -> f b
```

There is a utility function in the Prelude called liftM which “lifts” a function into a monad:

```
1 liftM  :: (Monad f) => (a -> b) -> f a -> f b
2 liftM f m1          = do { x1 <- m1; return (f x1) }
```

in many (most) cases where you are creating a Monad instance fmap = liftM for your monad.

So the complete (modern) set of instances look like this...

```
1 instance Functor (State s) where
2   fmap = liftM
3
4 instance Applicative (State s) where
5   pure a = State (\s -> (a,s))
6
7 instance Monad (State s) where
8   m >>= k = State (\s -> let (a,s') = runState m s
9                           in runState (k a) s')
```

## Classes in Haskell

- The type of equality
  - Naturally: (==) :: a -> a -> Bool
  - What does haskell say: (==) :: (Eq a) => a -> a -> Bool
- **Ad-Hoc polymorphism**
  - Equality is polymorphic [(==) :: a -> a -> Bool]
  - **However it is ad-hoc - there has to be a specific implementation for each type**
  - Contrast with (parametric) polymorphism of length:
    - length [] = 0
    - length (x:xs) = 1 + length xs
    - **This is guaranteed to work regardless of the list provided: no type dependency**
  - Ad-hoc polymorphism is ubiquitous
    - E.g. + is used to denote many different but related operators (a.k.a overloading)
    - Overloading is built into many languages, **but is a language feature of haskell called “type classes” - can create new instances**
  - **Defining (Type-) Classes in Haskell (Overloading)**
    - To define our own name/operator overloading, we:
      - **Specify the name/operator** involved (==)
      - **Describe its pattern** of use (e.g. a -> a -> Bool)
      - **Provide an overarching ‘class’ name for the concept** (e.g. Eq)
    - To use our operator with a given type (e.g. Bool) we **provide the implementation for that type** - instance of that type
  - **Equality Class**
    - **class Eq a where** <- introduce as a class characterising a type (a)
    - **(==) :: a -> a -> Bool** <- declares that a type of this class needs an implementation of (==) matching the signature provided

- ```
instance Eq Bool where
  True == True = True
  False == False = True
  _ == _ = False
```

- The real equality class

- ```
class Eq a where
  (==), (/=) :: a -> a -> Bool
  --minimum complete def: == or /=
  x == y = not (x /= y)
  x /= y = not (x == y)
```

- Note: circular definitions of == and /=, so we only define one, and the other is derived
- Might want to make both explicit for efficiency

- **How Haskell handles a class name/operator**

- Views the symbol, notes its association to a class, then deduces the type of the args (assuming well-typed), verifies that it has an instance of the class for such type, and generates appropriate code for it
- If not well typed?

```
1 No instance for (Eq MyType)
2   arising from a use of `==' at ...
3 Possible fix: add an instance declaration for (Eq MyType)
```

- **Standard (Prelude) Classes in Haskell**

- Relation: **Eq**, **Ord**
- Enumeration: **Enum**, **Bounded**
- Numeric: **Num**, **Real**, **Integral**, **Fractional**, **Floating**, **RealFrac**, **RealFloat**
- Textual: **Show**, **Read**
- Categorical: **Functor**, **Monad**