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 $March\ 2018$

Contents

1	"Brian Beckman: Don't Fear the Monad"	2
	1.1 Outline (7:50)	. 2
	1.2 Notation (8:25)	. 2
	1.2.1 Composition	
	1.3 Monoids (20:40)	
	1.4 Monads (30:39)	
2	The Maybe Monad	5
	2.1 As Described by Computerphile [1]	. 5
3	Other Monads	6
	3.1 The Identity Monad [3, p. 404]	. 6
	3.2 Definition of Maybe	
	3.3 The List Monad	
4	Using Parsec	8
	4.1 Parsing CSV	. 8
	4.2 sepBy and endBy Combinators	. 10

"Brian Beckman: Don't Fear the Monad"

Available on Youtube [2].

Dr. Beckman, astrophysicist and senior software engineer, begins with a basic introduction to functional programming as a concept. Most notably, he focuses on the concept of functions as being **replaceable** by table-lookups.

1.1 Outline (7:50)

- 1. Functions
- 2. Monoids
- 3. Functions
- 4. Monads

1.2 Notation (8:25)

From "imperative" to functional notation:

- $int \ x = x \in int$
- x :: int
- int f(int x)
- $f :: int \rightarrow int$

Given type variable $a: \forall a$

- A x
- x :: a
- static A f < A > (A x)
- f :: a →a

1.2.1 Composition

Given:

in imperative style function composition might appear as: f(g(a)) or in reverse: g(f(a)).

In functional style, function application appears as: g a and composition can be shown as: f(g a). Parenthesis are necessary due to partial application being left associative. For example, f h g is applied as though (f h) g.

It is also possible to use a composition operator, \circ , to imply composition: (f \circ g) a. So, given the above 1.2.1, we can deduce:

```
h = (f \circ g) \ a = f \circ g
h :: a \to a
```

This does confuse the concepts of a as argument and a as type, but the point remains clear, I think.

1.3 Monoids (20:40)

In abstract algebra, a branch of mathematics, a monoid is an algebraic structure with a single associative binary operation and an identity element.

Monoids are studied in semigroup theory, because they are semigroups with identity. a.

 a Wikipedia

A Monoid is a Set with:

- 1. an associative binary operator (generally composition)
- 2. an identity value

The operator need not be commutative.

In a programming context, a Monoid guarantees type-consistency over function composition.

1.4 Monads (30:39)

Given:

```
x :: a
f :: a \rightarrow M a
g :: a \rightarrow M a
g :: a \rightarrow M a
```

M is described as a "Type Constructor."

Again, Dr. Beckman is using a to represent both a value of type a as well as the type itself a. Here he introduced the *Monad* "bind" operator: >>=, which he likes to call "shove":

```
f:: a \to M a g:: a \to M a f:: a \to M a
```

The reason to preserve symmetry in the above expression is that the desired expression is "bracketed" as: $\lambda a \to [(fa)>>=\lambda a \to (ga)]$ because the bind operator has type:

```
(\gt)=) :: Monad m \Rightarrow m a \rightarrow (a \rightarrow m b) \rightarrow m b
```

That is, >>= accepts a Monad (M a) and returns a function from a \rightarrow M a.

The functions f, and g live in a Monoid. M a (the data) lives in a Monad.

(>>=) is the analog of function composition and, therefore, obeys the rules of a *Monoid*. Including associativity and identity.

In a Monad, identity is—in Haskell-written as:

```
return :: Monad m \Rightarrow a \rightarrow m a
```

Extended to non-uniform types:

```
g :: a \rightarrow Mb

f :: b \rightarrow Mc

\lambda a \rightarrow (g \ a) >>= \lambda b \rightarrow (f \ b) :: a \rightarrow Mc

g >>= \lambda b \rightarrow (f \ b)
```

The Maybe Monad

2.1 As Described by Computerphile [1]

```
-- Type and 2 type constuctors: Val and Div
data Expr = Val Int | Div Expr Expr

-- Val 1
-- Div (Val 6) (Val 2)

unsafe_eval :: Expr → Int
unsafe_eval (Val n) = n
unsafe_eval (Div x y) = div (eval x) (eval y)

-- eval (Div (Val 6) (Val 2))
```

What if Div is passed zero? The program will crash. So, error-checking is necessary.

Abstracting the pattern of case checking Maybe values can be represented as:

```
Without 'do' notation

eval' :: Expr \rightarrow Maybe Int
eval' (Val n) = return n
eval' (Div x y) =

eval' x>>= (\lambda n \rightarrow 0)
eval' y>>= (\lambda m \rightarrow 0)
safediv n m)

With 'do' notation

eval'' :: Expr \rightarrow Maybe Int
eval'' (Val n) = return n
eval'' (Div x y) = do
n \leftarrow eval'' x
m \leftarrow eval'' y
safediv n m
```

Other Monads

The Monad type [3, p. 402]:

Monad comes with some default definitions:

```
m \gg k = m \gg \lambda_{\perp} \rightarrow k
fail s = \text{error } s
```

From this definition it can be seen that >> acts like >>=, except that the value returned by the first argument is discarded rather than being passed to the second argument. [3, p. 403]

3.1 The Identity Monad [3, p. 404]

The identity monad takes a type to itself with definitions:

```
m >>= f = f m
return = id
```

3.2 Definition of Maybe

3.3 The List Monad

```
instance Monad [] where
  xs >>= f = concat (map f xs)
  return x = [x]
  fail s = []
```

Lists are, in fact, themselves instances of Monad.

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

\langle > \Rightarrow \rangle :: Monad m \Rightarrow m \ a \rightarrow (a \rightarrow m \ b) \rightarrow m \ b

map :: (a \rightarrow b) \rightarrow [a] \rightarrow [b]
```

Using Parsec

4.1 Parsing CSV

```
import Text.ParserCombinators.Parsec
```

[4, Ch. 16]

Input type is a sequence of characters, i.e., a Haskell *String*. *String* is the same as [*Char*]. The return value is [[*String*]]; a list of a list of Strings. We'll ignore *st* for now.

The do block implies a Monad. GenParser is a parsing monad.

many is a higher-order function that passes input repeatedly to the function passed as its argument. It collects the return values and treturns them in a list.

```
csvFile :: GenParser Char st [[String]]
csvFile =
  do result ← many line
  eof
  return result
```

A line is a list of cells followed by eol.

```
line :: GenParser Char st [String]
line =
  do result ← cells
   eol
   return result
```

```
cells :: GenParser Char st [String]
cells =
  do first ← cellContent
   next ← remainingCells
  return (first : next)
```

The choice operator, (<|>), tries the parser on the left and tries The parser on the right if the left consumes no input.

```
remainingCells :: GenParser Char st [String]
remainingCells =
  (char ',' >> cells) <|> (return [])
```

```
cellContent :: GenParser Char st String cellContent = many (noneOf ",\lambdan")
```

```
eol :: GenParser Char st Char eol = char '\lambdan'
```

```
\begin{array}{l} \textit{parseCSV} :: \textbf{String} \rightarrow \textbf{Either} \ \textit{ParseError} \ [[\textbf{String}]] \\ \textit{parseCSV} \ \textit{input} = \textit{parse} \ \textit{csvFile} \ "(unknown)" \ \textit{input} \end{array}
```

4.2 sepBy and endBy Combinators

```
import Text.ParserCombinators.Parsec
```

```
csvFile = endBy line eol
line = sepBy cell (char ',')
cell = quotedCell <|> many (noneOf ",λnλr")
```

A CSV cell may be either a bare cell or a quoted cell. Since a quoted cell may, itself, contain quotes (doubled for escape) a quotedCell is many quotedChar.

```
quotedCell =
   do char '"'

______content__ ←__many__quotedChar

_____char__'"' > <?> "quote__at__end__of__cell" -- see eol below
   return content
```

The functoin *quotedChar* begins by consuming any character that is *not* itself a quote. If it is a quoted character, the stream must be checked for a second consecutive quote. If so, a single quote mark is returned to the result string.

Notice that try in quotedChar on the right side of <|>. Recall that I said that try only has an effect if it is on the left side of <|>. This try does occur on the left side of a <|>, but on the left of one that must be within the implementation of many.

This try is important. Let's say we are parsing a quoted cell, and are getting towards the end of it. There will be another cell following. So we will expect to see a quote to end the current cell, followed by a comma. When we hit quotedChar, we will fail the noneOf test and proceed to the test that looks for two quotes in a row. We'll also fail that one because we'll have a quote, then a comma. If we hadn't used try, we'd crash with an error at this point, saying that it was expecting the second quote, because the first quote was already consumed. Since we use try, this is properly recognized as not a character that's part of the cell, so it terminates the many quotedChar expression as expected. Lookahead has once again proven very useful, and the fact that it is so easy to add makes it a remarkable tool in Parsec.

```
\begin{array}{l} \textit{quotedChar} = \\ \textit{noneOf} \ "\lambda"" \\ \textit{luc} > \textit{try}_{\square}(\textit{string}_{\square}"\lambda"\lambda""_{\square}>> \textit{treturn}_{\square}"") \end{array}
```

Parsec also includes combinators for error handling and reporting. A first attempt at an eol implementation that handles multiple line-ending styles might appear as:

```
> parseCSV "line1" Left "(unknown)" (line 1, column 6): unexpected end of input expecting ",", "\lambdan\lambdar", "\lambdan\lambdar", "\lambdan" or "\lambdar"
```

The failure above is unclear and requires knowlege of the parser implementation to debug fully. The monad fail function can be used to add messaging:

```
eol' = try (string "λnλr")
  <|> try (string "λrλn")
  <|> string "λn"
  <|> string "λr"
  <|> fail "Couldn't_find_EOL"
```

This adds messaging to the result, but is still noisy and unclear:

```
> parseCSV "line1" Left "(unknown)" (line 1, column 6): unexpected end of input expecting ",", "\lambda n \lambda r", "\lambda r \lambda n", "\lambda n \lambda r", "\lambda n \lambda r", "\lambda n \lambda n", "\lambda n \lambda n" or "\lambda n \lambda n" Couldn't find EOL
```

The Parsec <?> operator is designed to help here.

It is similar to <|> in that it first tries the parser on its left. Instead of trying another parser in the event of a failure, it presents an error message. Here's how we'd use it:

```
eol = try (string "\lambda n \lambda r")
<|> try (string "\lambda r \lambda n")
<|> string "\lambda n"
<|> string "\lambda r"
<?> "end_Uof_Uline"
```

This has a more pleasing result:

```
> parseCSV "line1"

Left "(unknown)" (line 1, column 6):

unexpected end of input

expecting "," or end of line
```

The general rule of thumb is that you put a human description of what you're looking for to the right of <?>.

```
parseCSV :: String → Either ParseError [[String]]
parseCSV input = parse csvFile "(unknown)" input
```

Bibliography

- [1] Sean Riley and Professor Graham Hutton, Computerphile: What is a Monad?, YouTube, November 2017.
- [2] Dr. Brian Beckman, Don't Fear the Monad, YouTube, November 2012.
- [3] Simon Thompson, *The Craft of Functional Programming*, Pearson, Edinburgh Gate, England, Second Edition, 1999.
- [4] Bryan O'Sullivan, Don Stewart, and John Goerzen Real World Haskell O'Reilly Media 2008.