

# Advanced Programming Handout 7

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Monads and Friends  
(SOE Chapter 18)

# The Type of a Type

- In previous chapters we discussed:
  - Monomorphic types such as `Int`, `Bool`, etc.
  - Polymorphic types such as `[a]`, `Tree a`, etc.
  - Monomorphic *instances* of polymorphic types such as `[Int]`, `Tree Bool`, etc.
- `Int`, `Bool`, etc. are *nullary type constructors*, whereas `[]`, `Tree`, etc. are *unary type constructors*. `FiniteMap` is a *binary type constructor*.
- The “type of a type” is called a *kind*. The kind of all monomorphic types is written “`*`”:  

```
Int, Bool, [Int], Tree Bool  ::  *
```
- Therefore the type of unary type constructors is:  

```
[] , Tree  ::  * -> *
```
- These “higher-order types” can be useful in various ways, especially with type classes.

# The Functor Class

- The Functor class demonstrates the use of high-order types:

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

- Note that **f** is applied here to one (type) argument, so should have kind “\* -> \*”.
- For example:

```
instance Functor Tree where
    fmap f (Leaf x)          = Leaf (f x)
    fmap f (Branch t1 t2) = Branch (fmap f t1) (fmap f t2)
```

- Or, using the function mapTree previously defined:

```
instance Functor Tree where
    fmap = mapTree
```

- Exercise: Write the instance declaration for *lists*.

# The Monad Class

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- *Monads* are perhaps the most famous (infamous?) feature in Haskell.
- They are captured in a type class:

```
class Monad m where
  (>>=)  :: m a -> (a -> m b) -> m b    -- "bind"
  (>>)   :: m a -> m b -> m b           -- "sequence"
  return :: a -> m a
  fail   :: String -> m a

  -- default implementations:
  m >> k      = m >>= (\_ -> k)
  fail s     = error s
```

- The key operations are `(>>=)` and `return`.

# Syntactic Mystery Unveiled

- The “do” syntax in Haskell is shorthand for Monad operations, as captured by these rules:

```
do e → e
```

```
do e1; e2; ...; en → e1 >> (do e2 ; ...; en)
```

```
do pat <- e1 ; e2 ; ...; en →
```

```
    let ok pat = do e2 ; ...; en
```

```
        ok _ = fail "..."
```

```
    in e1 >>= ok
```

```
do let declist ; e2 ; ...; en →
```

```
    let declist in (do e2 ; ...; en)
```

- Note special case of rule 3:

```
3a. do x <- e1 ; e2 ; ...; en →
```

```
    e1 >>= \x -> do e2 ; ...; en
```

# Example Involving IO

- “do” syntax can be completely eliminated using these rules:

```
do putStr "Hello"  
  c <- getChar  
  return c
```

→ 

```
putStr "Hello" >>      -- by rule (2)  
do c <- getChar  
  return c
```

→ 

```
putStr "Hello" >>      -- by rule (3a)  
getChar >>= \c ->  
do return c
```

→ 

```
putStr "Hello" >>      -- by rule (1)  
getChar >>= \c ->  
return c
```

→ 

```
putStr "Hello" >>      -- by currying  
getChar >>=  
return
```

# Functor and Monad Laws

- Functor laws:

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

- Monad laws:

```
return a >>= k           = k a
m >>= return             = m
m >>= (\x -> k x >>= h) = (m >>= k) >>= h
```

Note special case of last law:

```
m1 >> (m2 >> m3)      = (m1 >> m2) >> m3
```

- Connecting law:

```
fmap f xs = xs >>= (return . f)
```

# Monad Laws Expressed using “do” Syntax

- `do x <- return a ; k x` = `k a`
- `do x <- m ; return x` = `m`
- `do x <- m ; y <- k x ; h y` = `do y <- (do x <- m ; k x) ; h y`
- `do m1 ; m2 ; m3` = `do (do m1 ; m2) ; m3`
- `fmap f xs` = `do x <- xs ; return (f x)`

- For example, using the second rule above, the example given earlier can be simplified to just:

```
do putStr "Hello"  
   getChar
```

or, after desugaring: `putStr "Hello" >> getChar`



# The Maybe Monad

- Recall the Maybe data type:

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

- It is both a Functor and a Monad:

```
instance Monad Maybe where
    Just x  >>= k    = k x
    Nothing >>= k    = Nothing
    return x        = Just x
    fail s         = Nothing
```

```
instance Functor Maybe where
    fmap f Nothing = Nothing
    fmap f (Just x) = Just (f x)
```

- These instances are indeed “law abiding”.

# Using the Maybe Monad

- Consider the expression “`g (f x)`”. Suppose that both `f` and `g` could return errors that are encoded as “`Nothing`”. We might do:

```
case f x of
  Nothing -> Nothing
  Just y   -> case g y of
    Nothing -> Nothing
    Just z   -> ...proper result using z...
```

- But since Maybe is a Monad, we could instead do:

```
do y <- f x
   z <- g y
   return ...proper result using z...
```

# Simplifying Further

- Note that the last expression can be desugared and simplified as follows:

```
f x >>= \y ->  
g y >>= \z ->  →  f x >>= \y ->  
return z          g y >>= return
```

```
→  f x >>= \y ->  →  f x >>= g  
g y
```

- So we started with `g (f x)` and ended with `f x >>= g`.

# The List Monad

- The `List` data type is also a Monad:

```
instance Monad [] where
  m >>= k = concat (map k m)
  return x = [x]
  fail x   = [ ]
```

- For example:

```
do x <- [1,2,3]
   y <- [4,5]
   return (x,y)
```

→ [(1,4), (1,5), (2,4), (2,5), (3,4), (3,5)]

- Note that this is the same as:

```
[(x,y) | x <- [1,2,3], y <- [4,5]]
```

Indeed, list comprehension syntax is an alternative to `do` syntax, for the special case of lists.

# Useful Monad Operations

```
sequence      :: Monad m => [m a] -> m [a]
sequence     = foldr mcons (return [])
              where mcons p q = do x  <- p
                                   xs <- q
                                   return (x:xs)

sequence_    :: Monad m => [m a] -> m ()
sequence_   = foldr (>>) (return ())

mapM         :: Monad m => (a -> m b) -> [a] -> m [b]
mapM f as    = sequence (map f as)

mapM_       :: Monad m => (a -> m b) -> [a] -> m ()
mapM_ f as  = sequence_ (map f as)

(=<<)       :: Monad m => (a -> m b) -> m a -> m b
f =<< x     = x >>= f
```

# State Monads

- State monads are perhaps the most common kind of monad: they involve updating and threading *state* through a computation. Abstractly:

```
data SM a = SM (State -> (State, a))
```

```
instance Monad SM where
```

```
  return a = SM $ \s -> (s, a)
```

```
  SM sm0 >>= fsm1 = SM $ \s0 ->
```

```
    let (s1, a1) = sm0 s0
```

```
        SM sm1 = fsm1 a1
```

```
        (s2, a2) = sm1 s1
```

```
    in (s2, a2)
```

- Haskell's *IO monad* is a state monad, where State corresponds to the “state of the world”.
- But state monads are also commonly user defined. (For example, tree labeling – see *text*.)

# IO is a State Monad

- Suppose we have these operations that implement an association list:

```
lookup :: a -> [(a,b)] -> Maybe b
update :: a -> b -> [(a,b)] -> [(a,b)]
exists :: a [(a,b)] -> Bool
```

- A file system is just an association list mapping file names (strings) to file contents (strings):

```
type State = [(String, String)]
```

- Then an extremely simplified IO monad is:

```
data IO a = IO (State -> (State, a))
```

whose instance in **Monad** is exactly as on the preceding slide, replacing “**SM**” with “**IO**”.

# State Monad Operations

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- All that remains is defining the domain-specific operations, such as:

```
readFile :: String -> IO (Maybe String)
readFile s = IO (\fs -> (fs, lookup s fs) )
```

```
writeFile :: String -> String -> IO ()
writeFile s c = IO (\fs -> (update s c fs, ())) )
```

```
fileExists :: String -> IO Bool
fileExists s = IO (\fs -> (fs, exists s fs) )
```

- Variations include generating an error when `readFile` fails instead of using the `Maybe` type, etc.



# Polymorphic State Monad

- The state monad can be made polymorphic in the state, in the following way:

```
data SM s a = SM (s -> (s, a))

instance Monad (SM s) where
  return a           = SM $ \s -> (s, a)
  SM sm0 >>= fsm1   = SM $ \s0 ->
    let (s1, a1)     = sm0 s0
        SM sm1       = fsm1 a1
        (s2, a2)     = sm1 s1
    in (s2, a2)
```

- Note the partial application of the type constructor `SM` in the instance declaration. This works because `SM` has kind `* -> * -> *`, so “`SM s`” has kind `* -> *`.