CSE 114A: Fall 2021 Foundations of Programming Languages

Monads

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Abstracting Code Patterns

Abstracting Code Patterns

Rendering the Values of a List

```
-- >>> showList [1, 2, 3]
-- ["1", "2", "3"]
showList :: [Int] -> [String]
showList [] = []
showList (n:ns) = show n : showList ns
```

Squaring the values of a list

```
-- >>> sqrList [1, 2, 3]
-- 1, 4, 9
sqrList :: [Int] -> [Int]
sqrList [] = []
sqrList (n:ns) = n^2 : sqrList ns
```

Common Pattern: map over a list

Refactor iteration into mapList

Reuse map to implement inc and sqr

```
showList xs = map (\n -> show n) xs
sqrList xs = map (\n -> n ^ 2) xs
```

What about trees?

What about trees?

```
-- >>> showTree (Node 2 (Node 1 Leaf Leaf) (Node 3 Leaf Leaf))
-- (Node "2" (Node "1" Leaf Leaf) (Node "3" Leaf Leaf))
showTree :: Tree Int -> Tree String
showTree Leaf = ???
showTree (Node v l r) = ???
-- >>> sqrTree (Node 2 (Node 1 Leaf Leaf) (Node 3 Leaf Leaf))
-- (Node 4 (Node 1 Leaf Leaf) (Node 9 Leaf Leaf))
sqrTree :: Tree Int -> Tree Int
sqrTree Leaf = ???
sqrTree (Node v 1 r) = ???
```

QUIZ

Refactor iteration into mapTree! What should the type of mapTree be?

```
mapTree :: ???
showTree t = mapTree (\n -> show n) t
sqrTree t = mapTree (n -> n ^ 2) t
(A) (Int -> Int) -> Tree Int -> Tree Int
(B) (Int -> String) -> Tree Int -> Tree String
(C) (Int -> a) -> Tree Int -> Tree a
(D) (a -> a) -> Tree a -> Tree a
(E) (a -> b) -> Tree a -> Tree b
```



http://tiny.cc/cse116-maptree-ind

QUIZ

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(D) (a -> a) -> Tree a -> Tree a
(E) (a -> b) -> Tree a -> Tree b
```



http://tiny.cc/cse116-maptree-grp

Lets write mapTree

```
mapTree :: (a -> b) -> Tree a -> Tree b
mapTree f Leaf = ???
mapTree f (Node v 1 r) = ???
```

Wait ... there is a common pattern across two datatypes

Lets make a **class** for it!

```
class Functor t where
fmap :: ???
```

QUIZ

class Functor t where fmap :: ???

What type should we give to fmap?

$$(A)$$
 $(b \rightarrow a) \rightarrow t b \rightarrow t a$

(B)
$$(a \rightarrow a) \rightarrow t a \rightarrow t a$$



QUIZ

class Functor t where fmap :: ???

What type should we give to fmap?

$$(A)$$
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http://tiny.cc/cse116-fmap-grp

Reuse Iteration Across Types

```
instance Functor [] where
  fmap = mapList
instance Functor Tree where
  fmap = mapTree
And now we can do
-- >>> fmap (\n -> n^2) (Node 2 (Node 1 Leaf Leaf) (Node 3
Leaf Leaf))
-- (Node 4 (Node 1 Leaf Leaf) (Node 9 Leaf Leaf))
-- >>> fmap show [1,2,3]
-- ["1", "2", "3"]
```

Exercise: Write a Functor instance

```
data Result a
  = Error String
  0k
       а
instance Functor Result where
  fmap f (Error msg) = ???
  fmap f (Ok val) = ???
When you're done you should see
>>> fmap (\n -> n ^ 2) (Error "oh no")
(Error "oh no")
>>> fmap (\n -> n ^ 2) (Ok (Node 2 (Node 1 Leaf Leaf) (Node 3
Leaf Leaf)))
(Ok (Node 4 (Node 1 Leaf Leaf) (Node 9 Leaf Leaf)))
```

Exercise: Write a Functor instance

```
data Result a
  = Error String
  l Ok
       a
instance Functor Result where
  fmap f (Error msg) = ???
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When you're done you should see
-- >>> fmap (\n -> n ^ 2) (Error "oh no")
            (Node 2 (Node 1 Leaf Leaf) (Node 3 Leaf Leaf))
-- (Node 4 (Node 1 Leaf Leaf) (Node 9 Leaf Leaf))
```

Next: A Class for Sequencing

Recall our old Expr datatype data Expr = Number Int Plus Expr Expr Div Expr Expr deriving (Show) eval :: Expr -> Int eval (Number n) = neval (Plus e1 e2) = eval e1 + eval e2eval (Div e1 e2) = eval e1 `div` eval e2 -- >>> eval (Div (Number 6) (Number 2))

But, what is the result

```
-- >>> eval (Div (Number 6) (Number 0))
-- *** Exception: divide by zero
```

A crash! Lets look at an alternative approach to avoid dividing by zero.

The idea is to return a Result Int (instead of a plain Int)

- If a sub-expression had a divide by zero, return Error "..."
- If all sub-expressions were safe, then return the actual Result v

But, what is the result

```
eval :: Expr -> Result Int
eval (Number n) = Value n
eval (Plus e1 e2) = case e1 of
                      Error err1 -> Error err1
                      Value v1 -> case e2 of
                                      Error err2 -> Error err2
                                      Value v1 \rightarrow Result (v1 + v2)
eval (Div e1 e2) = case e1 of
                      Error err1 -> Error err1
                      Value v1 -> case e2 of
                                      Error err2 -> Error err2
                                      Value v1 ->
                                        if v2 == 0
                                          then Error ("yikes dbz:" ++ show e2)
                                          else Value (v1 `div` v2)
```

But, what is the result

The good news, no nasty exceptions, just a plain Error result

```
λ> eval (Div (Number 6) (Number 2))
Value 3
λ> eval (Div (Number 6) (Number 0))
Error "yikes dbz:Number 0"
λ> eval (Div (Number 6) (Plus (Number 2) (Number (-2))))
Error "yikes dbz:Plus (Number 2) (Number (-2))"
```

The bad news: the code is super duper gross

Let's spot a Pattern

The code is gross because we have these cascading blocks

but really both blocks have something common pattern

```
case e of
  Error err -> Error err
  Value v -> {- do stuff with v -}
```

- 1. Evaluate e
- 2. If the result is an Error then return that error.
- 3. If the result is a Value v then do some further processing on v.

Let's spot a Pattern

Lets **bottle** that common structure in two functions:

- >>= (pronounced *bind*)
- return (pronounced return)

```
(>>=) :: Result a -> (a -> Result b) -> Result b
(Error err) >>= _ = Error err
(Ok v) >>= process = process v

return :: a -> Result a
return v = Ok v
```

NOTE: return is *not* a keyword; it is just the name of a function!

A Cleaned up Evaluator

The magic bottle lets us clean up our eval

The gross pattern matching is all hidden inside >>=

A Cleaned up Evaluator

Notice the >>= takes *two* inputs of type:

- Result Int (e.g. eval e1 or eval e2)
- Int -> Result Int (e.g. The *processing* function that takes the V and does stuff with it)

In the above, the processing functions are written using

```
v1 \rightarrow \ldots and v2 \rightarrow \ldots
```

NOTE: It is *crucial* that you understand what the code above is doing, and why it is actually just a "shorter" version of the (gross) nested-case-of eval.

A Class for >>=

Like fmap or show or jval or ==, the >>= operator is useful across many types, so we capture it in an interface/typeclass:

```
class Monad m where
  (>>=) :: m a -> (a -> m b) -> m b
  return :: a -> m a
Notice how the definitions for Result fit the above, with m = Result
instance Monad Result where
  (>>=) :: Result a -> (a -> Result b) -> Result b
  (Error err) >>= = Error err
  (Ok v) >>= process = process v
  return :: a -> Result a
  return v = 0k v
```

Syntax for >>=

In fact >>= is so useful there is special syntax for it.

Instead of writing

```
e1 >>= \v1 ->
e2 >>= \v2 ->
e3 >>= \v3 ->
```

you can write

```
do v1 <- e1
    v2 <- e2
    v3 <- e3
    e</pre>
```

• • •

Syntax for >>=

Thus, we can further simplify our eval to:

```
eval :: Expr -> Result Int
eval (Number n) = return n
eval (Plus e1 e2) = do v1 <- eval e1
                       v2 <- eval e2
                       return (v1 + v2)
eval (Div e1 e2) = do v1 <- eval e1
                       v2 <- eval e2
                       if v^2 == 0
                         then Error ("yikes dbz:" ++ show e2)
                         else return (v1 `div` v2)
```

Purity and the Immutability Principle

Haskell is a **pure** language. Not a *value* judgment, but a precise *technical* statement:

The "Immutability Principle":

- A function must *always* return the same output for a given input
- A function's behavior should never change

No Side Effects

Haskell's most radical idea: expression ==> value

 When you evaluate an expression you get a value and nothing else happens

Specifically, evaluation must not have any side effects

- change a global variable or
- print to screen or
- read a file or
- send an email or
- launch a missile.

Purity means functions may depend only on their inputs

functions should give the same output for the same input every time

But... how to write "Hello, world!"

But, we want to ...

- print to screen
- read a file
- send an email

A language that only lets you write factorial and fibonacci is ... not very useful!

Thankfully, you can do all the above via a very clever idea: Recipe

Recipes

Haskell has a special type called IO - which you can think of as Recipe

```
type Recipe a = IO a
```

A *value* of type Recipe a is

- a **description** of an effectful computations
- when executed (possibly) perform some effectful I/O operations to
- **produce** a value of type a.

Recipes have No Effects

A value of type Recipe a is

- Just a description of an effectful computation
- An inert, perfectly safe thing with no effects.

Merely having a Recipe Cake has no effects: holding the recipe

- Does not make your oven hot
- Does not make your your floor dirty

Executing Recipes

There is only one way to execute a Recipe a

Haskell looks for a special value

```
main :: Recipe ()
```

The value associated with main is handed to the runtime system and executed

The Haskell runtime is the only one allowed to cook!

How to write an App in Haskell

Make a Recipe () that is handed off to the master chef main.

- main can be arbitrarily complicated
- will be composed of *many smaller* recipes

Hello World

```
putStrLn :: String -> Recipe ()
The function putStrLn

    takes as input a String

    returns as output a Recipe ()

putStrLn msg is a Recipe () when executed prints out msg on the screen.
main :: Recipe ()
main = putStrLn "Hello, world!"
... and we can compile and run it
$ ghc --make hello.hs
$ ./hello
Hello, world!
```

QUIZ: Combining Recipes

Next, lets write a program that prints multiple things:

```
main :: IO ()
main = combine (putStrLn "Hello,") (putStrLn "World!")
-- putStrLn :: String -> Recipe ()
-- combine :: ???
What must the type of combine be?
(A) combine :: () -> ()
(B) combine :: Recipe () -> Recipe () -> Recipe ()
(C) combine :: Recipe a -> Recipe a -> Recipe a
(D) combine :: Recipe a -> Recipe b -> Recipe b
(E) combine :: Recipe a -> Recipe b -> Recipe a
```

Using Intermediate Results

Next, lets write a program that

1. Asks for the user's name using

```
getLine :: Recipe String
```

2. Prints out a greeting with that name using

```
putStrLn :: String -> Recipe ()
```

Problem: How to pass the **output** of *first* recipe into the *second* recipe?

QUIZ: Using Yolks to Make Batter

Suppose you have two recipes

and we want to get

crack :: Recipe Yolk

mkBatter :: Recipe Batter

eggBatter :: Yolk -> Recipe Batter

```
mkBatter = crack `combineWithResult` eggBatter

What must the type of combineWithResult be?

(A) Yolk -> Batter -> Batter
(B) Recipe Yolk -> (Yolk -> Recipe Batter) -> Recipe Batter
(C) Recipe a -> (a -> Recipe a ) -> Recipe a
(D) Recipe a -> (a -> Recipe b ) -> Recipe b
(E) Recipe Yolk -> (Yolk -> Recipe Batter) -> Recipe ()
```

Look Familiar?

Wait a bit, the signature looks familiar!

```
combineWithResult :: Recipe a -> (a -> Recipe b) -> Recipe b

Remember this?
(>>=) :: Result a -> (a -> Result b) -> Result b
```

Recipe is an instance of Monad

```
instance Monad Recipe where
  (>>=) = {-... combineWithResult... -}
So we can put this together with putStrLn to get:
main :: Recipe ()
main = getLine >>= \name -> putStrLn ("Hello, " ++ name ++ "!")
or, using do notation the above becomes
main :: Recipe ()
main = do name <- getLine</pre>
           putStrLn ("Hello, " ++ name ++ "!")
```

Recipe is an instance of Monad

Exercise

- 1. Compile and run to make sure its ok!
- 2. Modify the above to repeatedly ask for names.
- 3. Extend the above to print a "prompt" that tells you how many iterations have occurred.

Monads are Amazing

Monads have had a *revolutionary* influence in PL, well beyond Haskell, some recent examples

- Error handling in go e.g. 1 and 2
- Asynchrony in JavaScript e.g. 1 and 2
- Big data pipelines e.g. LinQ and TensorFlow
- and Language-based security!