Monad Background (3A)

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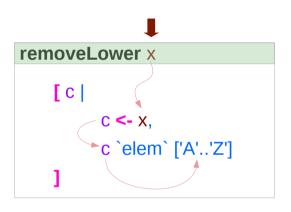
Haskell in 5 steps

https://wiki.haskell.org/Haskell_in_5_steps

A List Comprehension Function

```
let removeLower x = [c | c <- x, c `elem` ['A'..'Z']]</pre>
```

a list comprehension



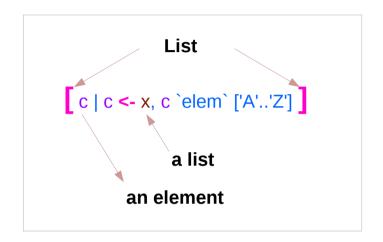
```
do { x1 <- action1
   ; x2 <- action2
   ; mk_action3 x1 x2 }</pre>
```

x1 : Return value of action1x2: Return value of action2

https://stackoverflow.com/questions/35198897/does-mean-assigning-a-variable-in-haskell

Pattern and Predicate

```
let removeLower x = [c \mid c \leftarrow x, c \in ['A'..'Z']]
a list comprehension
[c | c <- x, c `elem` ['A'..'Z']]
     c <- x is a generator
           (x : argument of the function removeLower)
     c is a pattern
           matching from the elements of the list x
           successive binding of c to the elements of the list x
     c `elem` ['A'..'Z']
           is a predicate which is applied to each successive binding of c
```



https://stackoverflow.com/questions/35198897/does-mean-assigning-a-variable-in-haskell

Only c which <u>passes</u> this predicate will appear in the output list

Assignment in Haskell

Assignment in Haskell: <u>declaration</u> with <u>initialization</u>:

- no uninitialized variables,
- must declare with an initial value
- no mutation
- a variable keeps its initial value throughout its scope.

https://stackoverflow.com/questions/35198897/does-mean-assigning-a-variable-in-haskell

Generator

```
[c| c <- x, c `elem` ['A'..'Z']]
filter ('elem' ['A' .. 'Z']) x
                                            c: an element
[c \mid c \leftarrow x]
                                            x: a list
                                                                                            action1 >>= (\ x1 ->
                                                                                             action2 >>= (\ x2 ->
                                                                                               mk_action3 x1 x2 ))
do c <- x
  return c
                                            c: an element
                                                                       c: a list
                                                                or
                                            x: an element
                                                                       x: a list
x >>= ( \c -> return c )
x >>= return
```

https://stackoverflow.com/questions/35198897/does-mean-assigning-a-variable-in-haskell

Anonymous Functions

```
(\x -> x + 1) 4
5 :: Integer

(\x y -> x + y) 3 5
8 :: Integer

inc1 = \x -> x + 1
```

```
incListA lst = map inc2 lst
where inc2 x = x + 1
```

```
incListB lst = map (\x -> x + 1) lst
```

```
incListC = map (+1)
```

 $https://wiki.haskell.org/Anonymous_function$

Then Operator (>>) and do Statements

a chain of actions

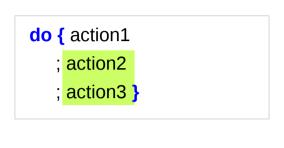
to <u>sequence</u> input / output operations

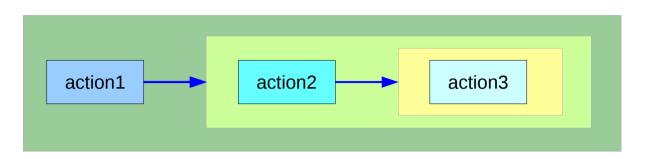
the (>>) (then) operator works almost identically in do notation

```
putStr "Hello" >>
putStr " " >>
putStr "world!" >>
putStr "\n"
```

```
do { putStr "Hello"
   ; putStr " "
   ; putStr "world!"
   ; putStr "\n" }
```

Chaining in **do** and >> notations





can **chain** any actions all of which are in **the same monad**

```
do { action1
  ; do { action2
    ; do { action3 } } }

action2 >>
  action3
```

Bind Operator (>==) and **do** statements

```
The bind operator (>>=)
```

passes a value ->

(the result of an action or function), downstream in the binding sequence.

```
action1 >>= (\ x1 ->
action2 >>= (\ x2 ->
mk_action3 x1 x2 ))
```

anonymous function (lambda expression) is used

```
do notation <u>assigns</u> a variable name to the passed value using the <-
```

```
do { x1 <- action1
   ; x2 <- action2
   ; mk_action3 x1 x2 }</pre>
```

Chaining >>= and **do** notations

```
->
                                                                                                        <-
                                                                                              do { x1 <- action1</pre>
action1 >>= (\ \times1 -> action2 >>= (\ \times2 -> mk action3 \times1 \times2 ))
                                                                                                   ; x2 <- action2
                                                                                                   ; mk_action3 x1 x2 }
action1
 >>=
  (\ x1 -> action2
     >>=
      (\ x2 \rightarrow mk \ action3 \ x1 \ x2))
                                                          action1
                                                                            ×1 ·
action1 >>= (\ x1 ->
 action2 >>= (\ x2 ->
  mk_action3 x1 x2 ))
                                                                                      action2
                                                                                                        x2 <del>|</del>
                                                                                                               mk_action3
```

fail method

O.K. when action1 returns Just x1

when action1 returns **Nothing** crash with an non-exhaustive patterns error

Handling failure with fail method

-- A compiler-generated message.

do { x1 <- action1</pre>

: x2 <- action2

; mk action3 x1 x2 }

Example

```
nameDo :: IO ()
nameDo = do { putStr "What is your first name? "
    ; first <- getLine
    ; putStr "And your last name? "
    ; last <- getLine
    ; let full = first ++ " " ++ last
    ; putStrLn ("Pleased to meet you, " ++ full ++ "!") }</pre>
```

```
do { x1 <- action1
   ; x2 <- action2
   ; mk_action3 x1 x2 }</pre>
```

using the **do** statement

A possible translation into vanilla monadic code:

using then (>>) and Bind (>>=) operators

return method

```
nameReturn :: IO String
nameReturn = do putStr "What is your first name? "

first <- getLine
putStr "And your last name? "

last <- getLine
let full = first ++ " " ++ last
putStrLn ("Pleased to meet you, " ++ full ++ "!")
return full
```

Without a return method

explicit return statement returns **IO String** monad

```
nameDo :: IO ()
nameDo = do { putStr "What is your first name? "
    ; first <- getLine
    ; putStr "And your last name? "
    ; last <- getLine
    ; let full = first ++ " " ++ last
    ; putStrLn ("Pleased to meet you, " ++ full ++ "!") }</pre>
```

no return statement returns **empty IO** monad

return method – not a final statement

```
nameReturnAndCarryOn :: IO ()
nameReturnAndCarryOn = do putStr "What is your first name? "
first <- getLine
putStr "And your last name? "
last <- getLine
let full = first++" "++last
putStrLn ("Pleased to meet you, "++full++"!")
return full
putStrLn "I am not finished yet!"
```

the return statement does <u>not</u> interrupt the flow the last statements of the sequence returns a value

Data Constructor

data Color = Red | Green | Blue

is a type

Color

Green

00.0.	
Red	is a <i>constructor</i> that contains a <i>value</i> of type Color .

Blue is a *constructor* that contains a *value* of type Color.

is a *constructor* that contains a *value* of type **Color**.

Data Constructor with Parameters

data Color = RGB Int Int Int

Color is a type

RGB is not a value but a <u>function</u> taking three Int's and <u>returning</u> <u>a value</u>

RGB :: Int -> Int -> Color

RGB is a **data constructor** that is a <u>function</u> taking three Int <u>values</u> as its arguments, and then uses them to <u>construct a new value</u>.

Type Constructor

Consider a binary tree to store Strings

```
data SBTree = Leaf String | Branch String SBTree SBTree

a type

SBTree is a type

Leaf is a data constructor (a function)

Branch is a data constructor (a function)

Leaf :: String -> SBTree
```

Branch :: String -> SBTree -> SBTree

Similar Type Constructors

Consider a binary tree to store **Strings**

data SBTree = Leaf String | Branch String SBTree SBTree

Consider a binary tree to store Bool

data BBTree = Leaf Bool | Branch Bool BBTree BBTree

Consider a binary tree to store a parameter type

data BTree a = Leaf a | Branch a (BTree a) (BTree a)

Type Constructor with a Parameter

Type constructors

Both **SBTree** and **BBTree** are type constructors

```
data SBTree = Leaf String | Branch String SBTree SBTree
data BBTree = Leaf Bool | Branch Bool BBTree BBTree
```

data BTree a = Leaf a | Branch a (BTree a) (BTree a)

Now we introduce a type variable a as a parameter to the type constructor.

BTree has become a function.

It takes a type as its argument and it returns a new type.

Type Constructors and Data Constructors

A type constructor

- a "function" that takes 0 or more types
- gives you back a new type.

Type constructors with <u>parameters</u> allows slight variations in <u>types</u>

A data constructor

- a "function" that takes 0 or more values
- gives you back a new value.

Data constructors with <u>parameters</u> allows slight variations in <u>values</u>

type SBTree = BTree String
type BBTree = BTree Bool

RGB 12 92 27

#0c5c1b

RGB 255 0 0

RGB 0 255 0

RGB 0 0 255



```
() is both a type and a value.
() is a special type, pronounced "unit", has one value (), sometimes pronounced "void"
the unit type has only one value which is called unit.
() :: ()
Type :: Expression
```

It is the same as the void type void in Java or C/C++.

https://stackoverflow.com/questions/20380465/what-do-parentheses-used-on-their-own-mean

Unit Type

a **unit type** is a type that allows <u>only one value</u> (and thus can hold <u>no information</u>).

It is the same as the void type void in Java or C/C++.

```
:t
Expression :: Type
```

```
data Unit = Unit

Prelude> :t Unit
Unit :: Unit
```

```
Prelude> :t ()
() :: ()
```

https://stackoverflow.com/questions/20380465/what-do-parentheses-used-on-their-own-mean

Type Language and Expression Language

```
data Tconst Tvar ... Tvar = Vconst type ... type | ...
Vconst type ... type
```

A new datatype declaration

Tconst (Type Constructor)

Vconst (Value Constructor)

is added to the type language is added to the expression language and its pattern sublanguage must <u>not</u> appear in types

Argument types in Vconst type ... type
are the types given to the arguments (Tconst Tvar ... Tvar)
are used in expressions

Datatype Declaration Examples

(Value Constructor)

```
data Tree a = Leaf | Node (Tree a) (Tree a)

Tree (Type Constructor)
```

data Type = Value

```
data () = ()() (Type Constructor)() (Value Constructor)
```

```
the type (), often pronounced "Unit" the value (), sometimes pronounced "void"
```

the type () containing only one value ()

Leaf or **Node**

IO()

```
put :: s -> State s ()

put :: s -> (State s) ()

one value input type s
the effect-monad State s
the value output type ()

the operation is used only for its effect;
the value delivered is uninteresting
```

```
putStr :: String -> IO ()
```

delivers a string to stdout but does not return anything exciting.

Monadic Effect

class Monad m where

return :: a -> m a

(>>=) :: m a -> (a -> m b) -> m b

https://en.wikibooks.org/wiki/Haskell/Understanding_monads/IO
https://stackoverflow.com/questions/2488646/why-are-side-effects-modeled-as-monads-in-haskell
https://stackoverflow.com/questions/7840126/why-monads-how-does-it-resolve-side-effects
https://stackoverflow.com/questions/2488646/why-are-side-effects-modeled-as-monads-in-haskell



Monadic operations tend to have types which look like

val-in-type-1 -> ... -> val-in-type-n -> effect-monad val-out-type

where the return type is a type application: the function tells you which effects are possible and the argument tells you what sort of value is produced by the operation

Variable definition in a file

Var1.hs Var2.hs r = 5

GHCi, version 7.10.3: http://www.haskell.org/ghc/ :? for help

Prelude>:load Var1.hs

young@Sys ~ \$ ghci

[1 of 1] Compiling Main (var.hs, interpreted)

Ok, modules loaded: Main.

*Main> r

5

*Main>:tr

r :: Integer

*Main>

*Main>:load Var2.hs

[1 of 1] Compiling Main (var2.hs, interpreted)

Ok, modules loaded: Main.

*Main> r

55

definition with initialization

No Mutation

Var1.hs

Var2.hs

r = 5

r = 55

No mutation

```
*Main> r = 33
<interactive>:12:3: parse error on input '='

young@Sys ~ $ ghci
GHCi, version 7.10.3: http://www.haskell.org/ghc/ :? for help
Prelude> r = 333
<interactive>:2:3: parse error on input '='
Prelude>
```

Functional & Imperative Languages

Imperative programming:

- variables as changeable locations in a computer's memory
- imperative programs explicitly commands the computer what to do

functional programming

- a way to think in higher-level mathematical terms
- defining how variables relate to one another
- leaving the compiler to translate these

to the step-by-step instructions that the computer can process.

Redefinition: not allowed

r = 5

r = 2

imperative programming:

after setting r = 5 and then changing it to r = 2.

Hakell programming:

an error: "multiple declarations of r".

Within a given scope, a variable in Haskell

gets defined only once and cannot change.

like variables in mathematics.

Immutable: They vary only based on the data we enter into a program.

We can't define r two ways in the same code,

but we could change the value by changing the file

Recursion

r = r + 1

imperative programming:

incrementing the variable r (updating the value in memory)

Hakell programming:

a recursive definition of r(defining it in terms of itself)

if r had been defined with any value beforehand,

then r = r + 1 in Haskell would bring an error message.

Data Dependence

$$y = x * 2$$

$$x = 3$$

$$x = 3$$

$$y = x * 3$$

Hakell programming:

because their values of variables do not change within a program

variables can be defined in any order

there is no notion of "x being declared before y" or the other way around.

Evaluation

```
area 5

=> { replace the left-hand side area r = ... by the right-hand side ... = pi * r^2 } pi * 5 ^ 2

=> { replace pi by its numerical value } 3.141592653589793 * 5 ^ 2

=> { apply exponentiation (^) } 3.141592653589793 * 25

=> { apply multiplication (*) } 78.53981633974483
```

replace each function with its definition

calculate the results until a single value remains.

to apply or call a function means

to replace the left-hand side of its definition by its right-hand side.

Type Synonyms

```
type String = [Char]

phoneBook :: [(String,String)]
```

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

phoneBook :: PhoneBook
```

```
phoneBook =

[("betty","555-2938")
,("bonnie","452-2928")
,("patsy","493-2928")
,("lucille","205-2928")
,("wendy","939-8282")
,("penny","853-2492")
]
```

```
type PhoneNumber = String
type Name = String
type PhoneBook = [(Name,PhoneNumber)]
phoneBook :: PhoneBook
```

http://learnyouahaskell.com/making-our-own-types-and-typeclasses

Generally, a monad <u>cannot</u> perform side effects in Haskell.

there is one exception: IO monad

Suppose there is a type called World, which contains all the state of the external universe

A way of thinking what IO monad does

type IO t = World -> (t, World)

type synonym

World -> (t, World)

World (t, World)

IO t is a function

input: a World

output: the t it's supposed to contain,

a new, updated World obtained

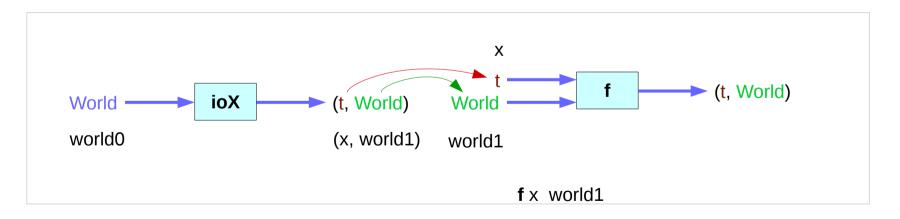
by modifying the given World

in the process of computing the t.

World → (t, World)

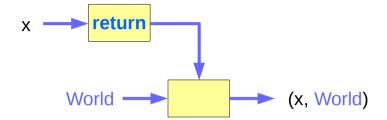
 $IO \times world0$ (x, world1)

```
instance Monad IO where
  return x world = (x, world)
  (ioX >>= f) world0 =
  let
     (x, world1) = ioX world0
  in
     f x world1 --- Has type (t, World)
```



The return function takes x
and gives back a function
that takes a World
and returns x along with the "new, updated" World
formed by not modifying the World it was given

return x world = (x, world)

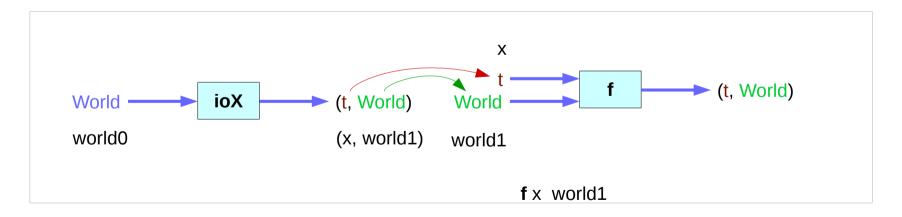


the expression (ioX >>= f) has type World -> (t, World)
a function that takes a World, called world0,
which is used to extract x from its IO monad.

This gets passed to f, resulting in another IO monad,
which again is a function that takes a World
and returns a x and a new, updated World.

We give it the World we got back from getting x out of its monad,
and the thing it gives back to us is the t with a final version of the World

the implementation of bind



Record Syntax (named field)

```
data Configuration = Configuration
  { username
                    :: String
  . localHost :: String
  . currentDir :: String
                    :: String
  , homeDir
  , timeConnected :: Integer
username :: Configuration -> String
                                                         -- accessor function (automatic)
localHost:: Configuration -> String
-- etc.
changeDir :: Configuration -> String -> Configuration
                                                        -- update function
changeDir cfg newDir =
  if directoryExists newDir -- make sure the directory exists
    then cfg { currentDir = newDir }
    else error "Directory does not exist"
```

https://en.wikibooks.org/wiki/Haskell/More on datatypes

newtype and data

data



newtype

Data can only be replaced with newtype if the type has exactly *one constructor* with exactly *one field* inside it.

It ensures that the trivial **wrapping** and **unwrapping** of the single field is eliminated by the **compiler**.

simple wrapper types such as **State** are usually defined with **newtype**.

type: used for type synonyms

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

https://en.wikibooks.org/wiki/Haskell/Understanding_monads/State

newtype examples

```
newtype Fd = Fd CInt
-- data Ed = Ed CInt would also be valid
-- newtypes can have deriving clauses just like normal types
newtype Identity a = Identity a
 deriving (Eq. Ord, Read, Show)
-- record syntax is still allowed, but only for one field
newtype State s a = State { runState :: s -> (s, a) }
-- this is *not* allowed:
-- newtype Pair a b = Pair { pairFst :: a, pairSnd :: b }
-- but this is:
data Pair a b = Pair { pairFst :: a, pairSnd :: b }
-- and so is this:
newtype NPair a b = NPair (a, b)
```

https://en.wikibooks.org/wiki/Haskell/Understanding_monads/State

References

- [1] ftp://ftp.geoinfo.tuwien.ac.at/navratil/HaskellTutorial.pdf
- [2] https://www.umiacs.umd.edu/~hal/docs/daume02yaht.pdf