## Monad Overview (2A)

```
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```

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## Based on

Haskell in 5 steps
https://wiki.haskell.org/Haskell_in_5_steps

## Monad, Monoid

monad (plural monads)

- An ultimate atom, or simple, unextended point; something ultimate and indivisible.
- (mathematics, computing) A monoid in the category of endofunctors.
- (botany) A single individual (such as a pollen grain) that is free from others, not united in a group.
monoid (plural monoids)
- (mathematics) A set which is closed under an associative binary operation, and which contains an element which is an identity for the operation.


## Monad - a parameterized type


single
parameter

$\square$

Monadic type

Maybe Int
Maybe Float

IO Float
IO ()
...

## A notion of computations

a value of type M a is interpreted as
a statement in an imperative language $M$ that returns a value of type $\mathbf{a}$ as its result;
a statement in an imperative language M describes which effects are possible.
executing a statement returns the result
running a function

```
effects + result
```

computations resulting in values

imperative code

## Semantics of a language M

Semantics : what the language M allows us to say.
a statement in an imperative language $M$
describes which effects are possible.
the semantics of this language are determined by the monad M

In the case of Maybe,
the semantics allow us to express failures
when a statement fails to produce a result,
allowing statements that are following to be skipped
an immediate abort
a valueless return in the middle of a computation.
https://en.wikibooks.org/wiki/Haskell/Understanding_monads\#cite_note-3

## A value of type M a

mx :: Ma
a value $m x$ of type $M a$ :
an execution of a function
computations that result in values
a shows what type of value
is produced by the operation
the type M a

an imperative language M
function definition

M a represent a parameterized Monad type

- Maybe a
- IO a
- ST a
- State s a
a monadic value $m x$

a statement in M returning a type a value
function application, execution, a return value
https://en.wikibooks.org/wiki/Haskell/Understanding_monads\#cite_note-3


## A Type Monad

Haskell does not have states
but it's type system is powerful enough
to construct the stateful program flow
defining a Monad type in Haskell

- similar to defining a class
in an object oriented language (C++, Java)
- a Monad can do much more than a class:

A Monad type can be used for

- exception handling
- parallel program workflow
- a parser generator
stateful computations based on function application





## Types: rules and data

Haskell types are the rules associated with the data, not the actual data itself.

OOP (Object-Oriented Programming) enable us to use classes / interfaces
to define types,
the rules (methods) that interacts with the actual data.
to use templates(c++) or generics(java)
to define more abstracted rules that are more reusable

Monad is pretty much like templates / generic class.
collection of methods
to be implemented

Rules + Data

Rules

## Monad methods

a monad is a parameterized type $m$
that supports return and $\gg=$ functions of the specified types
return :: a -> m a
(>>=) :: ma-> (a -> mb) -> mb
to sequence $m$ a type values.
the do notation can be used
generally, the (>>=) bind operator is used

```
tick :: State Int Int
tick = do n <- get
    put (n+1)
    return n
test = do tick -- (0,1)
    tick
    -- (1,2)
test = tick >>= tick
runState test 0
    -(4,6)
```


## Maybe Monad - an action and its result



```
semantics
effects
```


# effects 


mx has two forms
Just $x$
Nothing

## Maybe Monad Instance

```
class Monad m where
return :: a -> m a
(>>=) :: m a -> (a -> m b) -> m b
method type signatures
instance Monad Maybe where
\begin{tabular}{|c|c|c|}
\hline -- return & -> Maybe a & \\
\hline return x & \(=\) Just x & return method definition \\
\hline -- (>>=) & :: Maybe a -> (a -> & b) -> Maybe b \\
\hline Nothing (Just x) & \[
\begin{aligned}
=- & =\text { Nothing } \\
=f & =f x
\end{aligned}
\] & >>= method definition \\
\hline
\end{tabular}
f :: a -> Maybe b
```

Maybe
a

## Maybe Monad - the bind operator (>>=)

pass only the meaningful value


Nothing >>= g $\quad \Rightarrow$ Nothing
computation stops immediately


$$
\begin{aligned}
& \mathbf{g} \mathbf{x}=\text { return } \mathrm{x+1} \\
& \mathbf{g}=\mid x->\text { return } \mathrm{x+1} \\
& \text { a general function } \mathbf{g} \text { can return } \\
& \text { Nothing depending on its input } \mathrm{x} \\
& \text { (eg. divide by zero) }
\end{aligned}
$$

## Maybe Monad - (>>=) type signature

```
(Just x) >>= f = fx
Assume
(Just 3) :: Maybe Int
f :: Int -> Maybe Int
f = lx -> return x+1
fx = return x+1 -- Just (x+1) :: m b
(>>=) :: m a -> (a -> m b) -> m b
```


## Maybe Monad - the assignment operator (<-)

| $\begin{aligned} & \text { dt1 }=\text { do }\{x<- \text { Just } 3 ; \\ & \text { if } x==3 \text { then return } 33 ; \\ & \text { else return } 44 ;\} \end{aligned}$ | $\begin{aligned} & \text { Just } 3 \Rightarrow \text { Just } 33 \\ & x=3 \end{aligned}$ |
| :---: | :---: |
| $\begin{aligned} & \mathrm{dt2}=\mathrm{do}\{\mathrm{x}<- \text { Just } 4 ; \\ & \text { if } x==3 \text { then return } 33 ; \\ & \text { else return } 44 ;\} \end{aligned}$ | $\begin{aligned} & \text { Just } 4 \\ & x=4 \end{aligned}$ |
| $\begin{aligned} & \text { dt3 }=\text { do }\{x<- \text { Nothing; } \\ & \text { if } x==3 \text { then return } 33 ; \\ & \text { else return } 44 ;\} \end{aligned}$ | Nothing - Nothing <br> No assignment to $x$ |

After evaluating the monadic value, only the result 33 is assigned to $x$

Only a meaningful number is assigned to $x$

## Maybe Person type

A value of the type Maybe Person, is interpreted as a statement in an imperative language that returns a Person as the result, or fails.
father $\mathbf{p}$, which is a function application, has also the type Maybe Person

| $\mathbf{p}$ | $::$ Person |
| :--- | :--- |
| father $\mathbf{p}$ | $::$ Maybe Person |
| mother $\mathbf{q}$ | $::$ Maybe Person |

father :: Person -> Maybe Person
mother :: Person -> Maybe Person
father $\mathrm{p}=\left\{\begin{array}{l}\text { Just } q \\ \text { Nothing }\end{array}\right.$
https://en.wikibooks.org/wiki/Haskell/Understanding_monads\#cite_note-3

## Maybe (Person, Person) type

```
bothGrandfathers :: Person -> Maybe (Person, Person)
bothGrandfathers p =
    father p >>=
        (ldad -> father dad >>=
            (lgf1 -> mother p >>=
            (\mom -> father mom >>=
            (lgf2 -> return (gf1,gf2) ))))
```

bothGrandfathers $\mathrm{p}=$ do \{
dad <- father $p$;
gf1 <- father dad;
mom <- mother p;
gf2 <- father mom;
return (gf1, gf2);
\}

```
p :: Person
father p :: Maybe Person
mother q :: Maybe Person
dad :: Person
gf1 :: Person
mom :: Person
gf2 :: Person
(gf1, gf2) :: Maybe (Person, Person)
gf1 is only used in the final return
```


## Fail to return result exception

Sequencing operator >>= and do bock look like an imperative programming code but they support exceptions :

Nothing
father and mother are functions that might fail to produce results, raising an exception instead;

Nothing
when any exception happens, the whole code will fail, i.e. terminate with an exception (evaluate to Nothing).

p :: Person
father $\mathbf{p}$ :: Maybe Person

## Maybe Monad - the value for failure

The Maybe monad provides
a simple model of computations that can fail,
a value of type Maybe a is either Nothing (failure) or the form Just $\mathbf{x}$ for some $\mathbf{x}$ of type $\mathbf{a}$ (success)

## List Monad - the value for failure

The list monad generalizes this notion,
by permitting multiple results in the case of success.
a value of [a] is
either the empty list [ ] (failure)
or the form of a non-empty list [x1,x2,...,xn] (success)
for some $\mathbf{x i}$ of type a

## List Monad methods

```
instance Monad [] where
-- return :: a -> [a]
return x = [x]
-- (>>=) :: [a] -> (a -> [b]) -> [b]
xs >>= f = concat (map fxs)
```

return converts a value into a successful result containing that value
>>= provides a means of sequencing computations that may produce multiple results:
xs :: [a]
$\mathrm{f}:$ : a -> [b]
(>>=) :: [a] -> (a -> [b]) -> [b]

## List Monad bind operator

| xs >>= $f$ applies the function $f$ | $[y 1, y 2]=f x 1$ |
| :--- | :--- |
| to each of the results in the list xs | $[y 3, y 4]=f x 2$ |
|  | $[y 5, y 6]=f x 3$ |
| to give a nested list of results, | $[[y 1, y 2],[y 3, y 4],[y 5, y 6]]$ |
| which is then concatenated |  |
| to give a single list of results. | $[y 1, y 2, y 3, y 4, y 5, y 6]$ |

(Aside: in this context, [] denotes the list type [a] without its parameter.)


$$
[y 1, y 2, y 3, y 4, y 5, y 6]
$$

xs :: [a]
f:: a -> [b]
(>>=) :: [a] -> (a -> [b]) -> [b]
$[1,2,3] \gg=\ln ->[1 . . n]$
[[1], [1,2], [1,2,3]]
[1,1,2,1,2,3]

## Monad Applications

1. Exception Handling
2. Accumulate States
3. IO Monad

IO a

## Monad Rules

A type is just a set of rules, or methods
in Object-Oriented terms

A Monad is just yet another type, and
the definition of this type is defined by four rules:

1) bind (>>=)
2) then ( $\gg$ )
3) return
4) fail

Rules (methods)
http://www.idryman.org/blog/2014/01/23/yet-another-monad-
tutorial/

## Monad Minimal Definition

A minimal definition of monad

```
a type constructor m;
a function return;
an operator (>>=) "bind"
```

The function and operator

- are methods of the Monad type class
- have types (type signatures)
return :: a -> ma
(>>=) :: ma -> (a -> mb) -> mb
are required to obey three laws


## Monad Laws

every instance of the Monad type class must obey

```
m >>= return = m
return x >>= f = fx
(m>>=f)>>=g=m>>=(\x -> f x >>= g)
```

-- right unit
-- left unit
-- associativity

$$
\begin{aligned}
& \text { return :: a -> M a } \\
& \text { (>>=) :: M a -> (a -> M b) -> M b } \\
& \text { m :: M a } \\
& \text { f:: a -> M b } \\
& \text { fx:: Mb } \\
& \text { f } x \gg=\mathrm{g}:: \mathrm{Mc} \\
& \text { (>>=) :: M a -> (a -> M b) -> M b } \\
& \text { (>>=) :: M b -> (b -> M c) -> M c }
\end{aligned}
$$

## Monad Laws Examples (1)



Right unit
( $\mathbf{m} \gg=$ return) $=\mathrm{m}$
(Just $3 \gg=$ return) $=$ Just 3

Left unit
$(($ return $\mathbf{x}) \gg=\mathbf{f})=\mathbf{f x}$
$(($ return 3$) \gg=(\mid x->$ return $(x+1)))=$ return $4=$ Just 4

## Monad Laws Examples (2)

```
m>>= return = m
return x >>= f = fx
(m>>= f) >>= g=m >>=(\x -> fx>>= g)
```

((Just 3) >>= (lx -> return $(x+1)))$ = Just 4
((Just 4) >>= (lx -> return $\left.\left.\left(2^{*} x\right)\right)\right)=$ Just 8
$\left((\mid x->\right.$ return $(x+1)) \gg=\left(\mid x->\right.$ return $\left.\left.\left(2^{*} x\right)\right)\right)=\left(\left(x\right.\right.$-> return $\left.\left(2^{*}(x+1)\right)\right)$
((Just 3) >>= (lx -> return $\left.\left.\left(2^{*}(x+1)\right)\right)\right)=$ Just 8
-- right unit
-- left unit
-- associativity
( $(\mathrm{m} \gg=\mathrm{f})$
( $(\mathrm{m} \gg=\mathrm{f}) \gg=\mathrm{g})$
( $\mid x->f x \gg=g$ )
$m \gg=(\mid x->f x \gg=g)$

## then (>>) and bind (>>=) operators

the then operator (>>)
an implementation of the semicolon

The bind operator (>>=)
an implementation of the semicolon (;) and
assignment (<-) of the result
of a previous computational step.

```
< ;
\[
x<- \text { foo } \gg \quad \text { return }(x+3)
\]
```

$$
x<- \text { foo ; return }(x+3)
$$

$\gg=->$
foo $\gg=$ ( $1 x->$ return $(x+3)$ )

## Contexts of >> and >>=

## Monad Sequencing Operator

>> is used to order the evaluation of expressions
within some context;
it makes evaluation of the right
depend on the evaluation of the left

## Monad Sequencing Operator with value passing

>>= passes the result of the expression on the left
as an argument to the expression on the right,
while preserving the context that the argument and function use

## Just 10 :: Maybe Int

context
semantics
effects

## Just 10 >>= f

f 10
10 is passed to the function
f as an argument

## >>= and return

an assignment and semicolon as the bind operator:
$x<-$ foo; return $(x+3) \quad$ foo $\gg=$ ( $1 x->$ return $(x+3)$ )

The bind operator >>= combines together two computational steps,
foo and return ( $\mathbf{x + 3 \text { ), }}$
in a manner particular to the Monad M,
while creating a new binding for the variable $\mathbf{x}$ to hold foo's result,
making $\mathbf{x}$ available to the next computational step, return $(x+3)$.
https://en.wikibooks.org/wiki/Haskell/Understanding_monads\#cite_note-3

## >>= and return - Semantics of Maybe Monad

an assignment and semicolon as the bind operator:
$x<-$ foo; return $(x+3) \quad$ foo $\gg=(1 x->$ return $(x+3))$

In the particular case of Maybe, semantics
if foo fails to produce a result,
Nothing
the second step will be skipped and
the whole combined computation will also fail immediately.
Nothing
https://en.wikibooks.org/wiki/Haskell/Understanding_monads\#cite_note-3

## A function application and the bind operator

```
a let expression as a function application,
```

    let \(x=\) foo in \((x+3) \quad\) foo \& \((1 x->\) id \((x+3)) \quad--v \& f=f v\)
    reverse function application \&
an assignment and semicolon as the bind operator:

$$
x<- \text { foo; return }(x+3) \quad \text { foo } \gg=(1 x->\text { return }(x+3))
$$

\& and id are trivial; id is the identity function
just returns its parameter unmodified
>>= and return are substantial.

## Reverse Function Application \&

(\&) :: a -> (a -> b) -> b
\& is just like \$ only backwards.

## foo \$ bar \$ baz bin

semantically equivalent to:
bin \& baz \& bar \& foo
\& is useful because the order in which functions are applied to their arguments read left to right instead of the reverse (which is the case for \$).

This is closer to how English is read so it can improve code clarity.
https://en.wikibooks.org/wiki/Haskell/Understanding_monads\#cite_note-3

## \& and id

a let expression as a function application,

$$
\text { let } x=\text { foo in }(x+3) \quad \text { foo \& }(1 x->\text { id }(x+3)) \quad--v \& f=f \$ v=f v
$$

The \& operator combines together two pure calculations,
foo and id ( $\mathrm{x}+3$ )
while creating a new binding for the variable $\mathbf{x}$ to hold foo's value, $x \leftarrow f o o$ making $\mathbf{x}$ available to the second computational step: id ( $x+3$ ).

## 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
    https://www.cs.hmc.edu/~adavidso/monads.pdf
    
## Monadic Operations - a function form

Monadic operations tend to have types which look like
val-in-type-1 -> ... -> val-in-type-n $\rightarrow$ effect-monad val-out-type
the type of a return value from a monadic operation
the types of inputs to a monadic operation
function type

## Monadic Operations - returning a monadic value

Monadic operations tend to have types which look like
val-in-type-1 -> ... -> val-in-type-n $\square$ effect-monad val-out-type
a monadic operation
= a function

- inputs
- a return value
- another function is returned
- executing this returned function
- returns a function as a value


## Monadic Operations - the result of a monadic value

Monadic operations tend to have types which look like

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

effect-monad produces a
result of a type of val-out-type
computations
statement
in the imperative language

## Monadic Operations - type application



## Monadic Operations - IO and State Monads

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

Monadic operations using IO and State have a return value, as well as performing side-effects.
the only point of using these monadic operations is
to perform a side-effect,
writing to the screen .............. IO Monad
storing some state ............. State Monad

## Monadic Operation - the result type



[^0]
## Monadic Operations - put example

```
put :: s -> State s()
put :: s -> (State s)()
the operation is used only for its effect; the value delivered is uninteresting
```



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

put :: s -> (State s) ()
result
result
runState (put 5) 1

```
\begin{tabular}{ll} 
one value input type & \(\mathbf{s}\) \\
the effect-monad & State s \\
the value output type & ( )
\end{tabular}
```

effect-monad val-out-type

```
    (State s) ()

\section*{Monadic Operations - putStr example}
```

putStr :: String -> IO ()
delivers a string to stdout
but does not return anything meaningful

```
one value input type s
the effect-monad IO
the value output type ()
effect-monad val-out-type
    IO ()

\section*{Monadic Operations - underlying functions}
val-in-type-1 -> ... -> val-in-type-n ->
```

effect-monad val-out-type

```



\section*{IO t and State s a types}
```

type IOt = World -> (t, World)

```
type synonym
newtype State \(\frac{\sqrt{4}}{\square}=\) State \(\{\) runState \(:: s->(a, s)\}\)

\(s\) : the type of the state,
a : the type of the produced result
s-> (a, s) : function type

\section*{IO Monad - return method}

The return function takes \(x\) and gives back a function
that takes a wo :: World
and returns x along with the updated World,
but not modifying the given wo :: World


\section*{State Transformers ST Monad}
instance Monad ST where
```

-- return :: a -> ST a
return x = \s -> (x,s)

```
-- (>>=) :: ST a -> (a -> ST b) -> ST b
st >>=f = ls -> let (x,s') = st s in f \(\mathrm{x} \mathrm{s}^{\prime}\)
>>= provides a means of sequencing state transformers:
st >>= fapplies the state transformer st to an initial state s , then applies the function \(f\) to the resulting value \(x\) to give a second state transformer ( \(f \mathrm{x}\) ),
which is then applied to the modified state s' to give the final result:
```

st >>= f = \s -> fx s'

```
    where ( \(\mathrm{x}, \mathrm{s}^{\prime}\) ) \(=\) st s
st \(\gg=\mathrm{f}=\) ls \(->\left(\mathrm{y}, \mathrm{s}^{\prime}\right)\)
    where ( \(\mathrm{x}, \mathrm{s}^{\prime}\) ) \(=\) st s
        \(\left(y, s^{\prime}\right)=f \times s^{\prime}\)
\(\left(\mathrm{x}, \mathrm{s}^{\prime}\right)=\mathrm{st} \mathrm{s}\)
fx s'

\section*{Monad Definition}
```

class Monad m where
return :: a -> m a
(>>=) :: m a -> (a -> m b) -> m b
(>>) :: m a -> mb -> mb
fail :: String -> m a

```
\(\mathrm{ma}\left\{\begin{array}{l}\text { Maybe a } \\ \text { IO a } \\ \text { ST a } \\ \text { State sa }\end{array}\right.\)
1) return
2) bind (>>=)
3) then ( \(\gg\) )
4) fail

\section*{Maybe Monad Instance}
instance Monad Maybe where
```

return x = Just x
Nothing >>= f= Nothing
Just x >>= f=fx
fail _ = Nothing

```

\section*{State Monad Instance}
```

instance Monad (State s) where
return :: a -> State s a
return x = state (ls -> (x, s))
(>>=) :: State s a -> (a -> State s b) -> State s b
p >>= k = q where
p'= runState p -- p' :: s -> (a, s)
k' = runState . k -- k' :: a -> s -> (b, s)
q' s0 = (y, s2) where -- q' :: s -> (b, s)
(x, s1) = p' s0 -- (x, s1) :: (a, s)
(y, s2)= k' x s1 -- (y, s2) :: (b, s)
q = State q'

```

\section*{IO Monad Instance}
```

instance Monad IO where
m >>k =m >>= |_ ->k
return = returnIO
(>>=) = bindIO
fail s = faillO s
returnIO :: a -> IO a
returnIO x = IO \$ ls -> (\# s, x \#)
bindIO :: IO a -> (a -> IO b) -> IO b
bindIO (IO m) k
= IO \$ ls -> case m s of (\# new_s, a \#)
-> unIO (k a) new_s
m}=n\mp@code{n_s
s = a
(k a) new_s
(k s) m
pattern -> result
pattern -> result
pattern -> result

```
case expression of

\section*{Pure functional programs}

Why do you need a monad?

Pure functional languages are different from imperative languages like C, or Java in that,
- a pure functional program is not necessarily executed in a specific order, one step at a time.
- A Haskell program is more akin to a mathematical function, in which you may solve the "equation" in any number of potential orders.
- it eliminates the possibility of certain kinds of bugs (data dependency, particularly those relating to things like state)

\section*{Execution orders}

However, certain problems like console programming, and file i/o, need things to happen in a particular order, or need to maintain state.

One way to deal with this problem is to create
- a kind of object that represents the state of a computation, and
- a series of functions that take a state object as input, and return a new modified state object.

\section*{A hypothetical state value}
a hypothetical state value can
represent the state of a console screen.
- exact value is not important,
- an array of byte length ascii characters that represents what is currently visible on the screen, and
- an array that represents the last line of input entered by the user, in pseudocode.
- create some functions that take console state, modify it, and return a new console state.


\section*{Nesting style for a particular execution order}
```

consolestate MyConsole = new consolestate;

```
for a pure functional manner, a possible choice is to nest a lot of function calls inside each other.
consolestate FinalConsole =
print( input( print( myconsole, "Hello, what's your name?" ) ),"hello, \%inputbuffer\%!" );

- this programming keeps the pure functional style
- while forcing changes to the console to happen in a particular order.

\section*{No-nesting style}
- more than just a few operations at a time
- more than nesting functions
- a more convenient way to write it
consolestate FinalConsole = myconsole:
print("Hello, what's your name?"):
input():
print("hello, \%inputbuffer\%!");

\section*{Monad, bind and lift operators}

If you have a type (such as consolestate) that you define along with a few functions designed specifically to operate on that type,
you can make a whole package of type definition
and related functions into a monad
by defining an operator like :
(bind operator) automatically feeds return values on its left, into function parameters on its right,
(lift operator) turns normal functions, into functions that work with that specific kind of bind operator.

\section*{Bind operator >>=}
putStrLn "What is your name?"
putStrLn :: String -> IO ()
>>= ( 1 - -> getLine)
>>= (Iname -> putStrLn ("Welcome, " ++ name ++ "!"))
getLine :: IO String

The >>= operator takes a value (on the left side) and combines it with a function (on the right side),
to produce a new value.

This new value is then taken by the next >>= operator and again combined with a function to produce a new value.
>>= can be viewed as a mini-evaluator.


\footnotetext{
https://stackoverflow.com/questions/44965/what-is-a-monad
}

\section*{Monadic operation}

\section*{a monad}
- is a parameterized type
- is an instance of the Monad type class
- defines >>= along with a few other operators.
- just a type for which the >>= operation is defined.

In itself >>= is just a cumbersome way of chaining functions,
but with the presence of the do-notation
which hides the "plumbing",
the monadic operations turns out to be a very nice
and useful abstraction, useful many places in the language,
and useful for creating your own mini-languages in the language.

\section*{>>= : an overloaded operator}

Note that >>= is overloaded for different types, so every monad has its own implementation of >>=. (All the operations in the chain have to be of the type of the same monad though, otherwise the >>= operator won't work.)

The simplest possible implementation of \(\gg=\) just takes the value on the left and applies it to the function on the right and returns the result, but as said before, what makes the whole pattern useful is when there is something extra going on in the monad's implementation of \(\gg=\).

\section*{Combining functions}
in a do-block, every operation (basically every line) is wrapped in a separate anonymous function.

These functions are then combined using the bind operator
the bind operation combines functions,
it can execute them as it sees fit:
sequentially, multiple times, in reverse, discard some,
execute some on a separate thread when it feels like it and so on.

\section*{Various Monad applications (1)}
1) The Failure Monad:

If each step returns a success/failure indicator, bind can execute the next step only if the previous one succeeded. a failing step can abort the whole sequence "automatically", without any conditional testing from you.
2) The Error Monad or Exception Monad:

Extending the Failure Monad, you can implement exceptions
By your own definition (not being a language feature),
you can customize how they work.
(e.g., can ignore the first two exceptions and
abort when a third exception is thrown.)

\section*{Various Monad applications (2)}
3) The List Monad:
each step returns multiple results, and the bind function iterates over them, feeding each one into the next step

No need to write loops all over the place when dealing with multiple results.
4) The Reader Monad

As well as passing a result to the next step,
the bind function pass extra data around as well
This extra data now doesn't appear in your source code, but it can be still accessed from anywhere, without a manual passing

\section*{Various Monad applications (3)}
5) The State Monad and the Writer Monad
the extra data can be replaced.
This allows you to simulate destructive updates
without actually doing destructive updates
you can trivially do things that would be impossible with real destructive updates.

For example, you can undo the last update,
or revert to an older version.

\section*{Various Monad applications (4)}

You can make a monad where calculations can be paused, so you can pause your program, go in and tinker with internal state data, and then resume it.

You can implement continuations as a monad.

\section*{List Monad Examples}
```

[x*2 | x<-[1..4], odd x]
t = do x <- [1..4]
if odd x then [x*2] else []
[1..4] >>= (lx -> if odd x then [x*2] else [])
1
[2]
2 [ ]
3 [6]
4 [ ]

```

\section*{Reader Monad Examples}

\section*{Reader ra}
where \(\mathbf{r}\) is some "environment" and
\(\mathbf{a}\) is some value you create from that environment
let r1 = return 5 :: Reader String Int
:t r1
r1 :: Reader String Int
a Reader that takes in a String and returns an Int.
The String is the "environment" of the Reader.

\section*{Reader Monad Examples}

\section*{Reader ra}
let \(\mathbf{r 1}=\) return 5 :: Reader String Int
r1 :: Reader String Int
(runReader r1) "this is your environment"
5
runReader :: Reader r a -> r -> a

So runReader takes in a Reader and an environment (r)
and returns a value (a).

\section*{Reader Monad Examples}
```

import Control.Monad.Reader
tom :: Reader String String
tom = do
env <- ask
return (env ++ " This is Tom.")
jerry :: Reader String String
jerry = do
env <- ask
return (env ++ " This is Jerry.")

```
```

tomAndJerry :: Reader String String
tomAndJerry = do
t <- tom
j <- jerry
return (t ++ "ln" ++ j)
runJerryRun :: String
runJerryRun = (runReader tomAndJerry)
"Who is this?"
Who is this? This is Tom.
Who is this? This is Jerry.

```

\section*{I/O Monad Examples}

\section*{do}

getChar :: IO Char
Read a character from the standard input device
getLine :: IO String
Read a line from the standard input device

Monads as computation builders
the monad chains operations in some specific, useful way.
in the IO monad example
the operations are performed sequentially, but a hidden variable is passed along, which represents the state of the world, allows us to write I/O code in a pure functional manner.

\section*{A Parser Example}
```

parseExpr = parseString <|> parseNumber

```
parseExpr = parseString <|> parseNumber
parseString = do
parseString = do
    char '"' -- \".*\"
    char '"' -- \".*\"
    x <- many (noneOf "\"")
    x <- many (noneOf "\"")
    char ""
    char ""
    return (StringValue x)
    return (StringValue x)
parseNumber = do
parseNumber = do
    num <- many1 digit
    num <- many1 digit
    return (NumberValue (read num))
```

    return (NumberValue (read num))
    ```

The operations (char, digit, etc) either match or not
the monad manages the control flow:

The operations are performed sequentially until a match fails, in which case the monad backtracks to the latest <|> and tries the next option.

Again, a way of chaining operations with some additional, useful semantics.

\section*{Parser - char, digit}
char :: Stream s m Char => Char -> ParsecT s u m Char
char c parses a single character c.
Returns the parsed character (i.e. c).
semiColon = char ';'
digit :: Stream s m Char => ParsecT s u m Char
Parses a digit.
Returns the parsed character.

\section*{Parser - many, many1, noneOf}
many :: ReadP a -> ReadP [a]
Parses zero or more occurrences of the given parser.
many1 :: ReadP a -> ReadP [a]
Parses one or more occurrences of the given parser.
noneOf :: Stream s m Char => [Char] -> ParsecT s u m Char
As the dual of oneOf, noneOf cs succeeds
if the current character not in the supplied list of characters cs.
Returns the parsed character.
consonant \(=\) noneOf "aeiou"

\section*{Parser - <|> combinator}
(<|>) :: (ParsecT s u m a) -> (ParsecT s u m a) -> (ParsecT s u m a)
This combinator implements choice.
The parser \(p<\mid>q\) first applies \(p\).
If it succeeds, the value of \(p\) is returned.
If \(p\) fails without consuming any input, parser \(q\) is tried.

\section*{Strictness declaration (1)}

\section*{strictness declaration}
it must be evaluated to what's called "weak normal head form" when the data structure value is created.
data Foo = Foo Int Int !Int !(Maybe Int)
\(\mathrm{f}=\) Foo (2+2)(3+3)(4+4)(Just (5+5))

The function \(\mathbf{f}\) above, when evaluated, will return a "thunk":
delayed computation that is, the code to execute to figure out its value.
At that point, a Foo doesn't even exist yet, just the code.

\section*{Strictness declaration (2)}
data Foo = Foo Int Int !Int !(Maybe Int)
\(\mathrm{f}=\) Foo (2+2)(3+3)(4+4)(Just (5+5))

But at some point someone may try to look inside it case fof

Foo 0 _ _ _ -> "first arg is zero"
-> "first arge is something else"

This is going to execute enough code to do what it needs
So it will create a Foo with four parameters
The first parameter, we need to evaluate all the way to 4 , where we realize it doesn't match.

\section*{Strictness declaration (3)}
data Foo = Foo Int Int ! Int !(Maybe Int)
\(\mathrm{f}=\) Foo (2+2)(3+3)(4+4)(Just (5+5))

The second parameter doesn't need to be evaluated, because we're not testing it. Thus, instead of storing the computation Results 6, store the code (3+3) that will turn into a 6 only if someone looks at it.

The third parameter, however, has a ! in front of it, so is strictly evaluated: \((4+4)\) is executed, and 8 is stored in that memory location.

\section*{Strictness declaration (4)}
data Foo = Foo Int Int ! Int !(Maybe Int)
\(\mathrm{f}=\) Foo (2+2)(3+3)(4+4)(Just (5+5))

The fourth parameter is also strictly evaluated.
we're evaluating not fully, but only to weak normal head form.
figure out whether it's Nothing or Just something,
and store that, but we go no further.
That means that we store not Just 10 but actually Just (5+5),
leaving the thunk inside unevaluated.

\section*{Async Monad Examples}
```

let AsyncHttp(url:string) =
async { let req = WebRequest.Create(url)
let! rsp = req.GetResponseAsync()
use stream = rsp.GetResponseStream()
use reader = new System.IO.StreamReader(stream)
return reader.ReadToEnd() }

```

The async \(\}\) syntax indicates that the control flow in the block is defined by the async monad.

GetResponseAsync actually waits for the response on a separate thread, while the main thread returns from the function.

The last three lines are executed on the spawned thread when the response have been received.

In most other languages you would have to explicitly create a separate function for the lines that handle the response.

The async monad is able to "split" the block on its own and postpone the execution of the latter half.

\section*{Functors as containers}
```

fmap :: (a-> b) -> M a -> M b -- functor
return :: a -> M a
join :: M (Ma) -> Ma

```
the functors-as-containers metaphor
a functor M - a container
M a contains a value of type a
fmap allows functions to be applied to values in the container

\section*{Function application, Packaging, Flattening}
fmap applies a function to a value in a container
return packages a value in a container
join flattens a container in containers
applies
fmap :: \((\mathbf{a}->\mathbf{b})->\) M \(\mathbf{a}->\) M b -- functor
return :: a -> M a packaging
flatten
join :: M (Ma) -> Ma
https://en.wikibooks.org/wiki/Haskell/Understanding_monads\#cite_note-3

\section*{>>= vs. fmap \& join}
(>>=) in terms of join and fmap
\[
\mathbf{m} \gg=\mathbf{g}=\operatorname{join}(\mathrm{fmap} \mathbf{g} \mathbf{~ m})
\]
fmap and join in terms of (>>=) and return
```

fmap f x = x >>= (return .f)
join x = x >>= id

```
import Control.Monad
join (Just (Just 10))
Just 10
join (Just (Just (Just 10)))
Just (Just 10)
instance Monad [] where
-- return :: a -> [a]
return \(\mathbf{m}=[\mathbf{m}]\)
-- (>>=) :: [a] -> (a -> [b]) -> [b]
\(\mathrm{m} \gg=\mathrm{g}=\) concat (map g m)
\[
\mathbf{m} \gg=\mathbf{g}=\text { join (fmap } \mathbf{g ~ m})
\]
fmap (*3) (Just 10)
Just 10 >>= return . (* 3)
Just 30
join (Just (Just 10))
Just (Just 10)) >>= id
Just 10
https://en.wikibooks.org/wiki/Haskell/Understanding_monads\#cite_note-3

\section*{Monad's lifting capability}
a Monad is just a special Functor with extra features

\section*{Monads}
map types to new types
that represent "computations that result in values"
liftM (like fmap)
can lift regular functions into Monad types
```

(a -> b)
(m a -> m b)

```
computations resulting in values

a
M a
types
new types

\section*{liftM Function}

\section*{Control.Monad defines liftM}
liftM transform a regular function
into a "computations that results in the value obtained by evaluating the function."
liftM :: (Monad m) => (a -> b) -> m a -> m b
liftM is merely
fmap implemented with (>>=) and return
fmap f \(\mathbf{x}=\mathbf{x} \gg=\) (return.f)
liftM and fmap are therefore interchangeable.

\title{
f:: a -> \\ \(\nabla\) \\ \\ liftM f:: M a -> M b
} \\ \\ liftM f:: M a -> M b
}
computations that results in the value obtained by evaluating the function

\section*{Monad - mapping a type and lifting a function}
mapping a new type
Monads map types to new types
that represent "computations that result in values"
The function return lifts a plain value a to M a
lifting function
can lift functions into Monad types
via a very fmap-like function called liftM
that turns a regular function into a
"computation that results in the value
obtained by evaluating the function."

\section*{a \\ M \\ a}

\section*{f:: a -> \\ b \\ liftM f :: Ma-> M b}

\section*{liftM - function lifting}

lifting


\section*{return - type lifting}

The function return lifts a plain value a to M a

The statements in the imperative language M
when executed, will result in the value a
without any additional effects particular to M.

This is ensured by Monad Laws,
```

foo >>= return === foo
return x >>= k === k x;
return x >>= k
k x;

```

\section*{ap Function}

Control.Monad defines ap function
ap :: Monad m => m (a -> b) -> ma-> mb

Analogously to the other cases,
ap is a monad-only version of (<*>).

\section*{M f:: M (a -> b) ap Mf:: Ma->Mb}

\section*{liftM vs fmap and ap vs <*>}
liftM :: Monad m => (a->b) -> ma->mb
fmap :: Functor f => (a->b) -> fa->fb
ap :: Monad m => m (a -> b) -> ma-> mb
(<*>) :: Applicative f => f(a->b) ->fa->fb
(>>=) :: Monad m => ma->(a->mb) -> mb
https://en.wikibooks.org/wiki/Haskell/Understanding_monads\#cite_note-3

\section*{Three Orthogonal Functions}

Thinking of extraction : a slightly misleading intuition.

Nothing is being "extracted" from a monad.

The more fundamental definition of a monad can be stated by three orthogonal functions:
fmap :: (a -> b) -> (m a -> m b)
return :: a -> ma
join :: m (m a) -> ma
m is a monad.

\section*{Three Orthogonal Functions and >>=}
```

fmap :: (a -> b) -> (m a -> m b)
return :: a-> ma
join :: m (ma) -> ma

```
\[
\begin{aligned}
& \left(\begin{array}{ll}
\mathrm{a}-> & \mathrm{b}) \\
\mathrm{a}
\end{array} \mathrm{P}(\mathrm{~m} \text { a }->\mathrm{m} \quad \mathrm{~b})\right. \\
& \text { (a }->\mathrm{m} \text { b) }->\text { (m a }->\mathrm{m}(\mathrm{~m} \text { b)) } \\
& \text { (a -> m b) -> (ma }->\mathrm{m} \text { b) }
\end{aligned}
\]
how to implement (>>=) with these:
starting with arguments of type m a and \(\mathbf{a}->\mathrm{m} \mathbf{b}\),
your only option is using fmap to get something of type \(m(m b)\),
\[
\begin{aligned}
& \left(\begin{array}{ll}
a-> & b
\end{array}\right)->(m a->m \\
& (a->m b)->(m a->m(m b))
\end{aligned}
\]
join to flatten the nested "layers" to get just m b.
(a -> m b) -> (m a ->m b)

\section*{Monad Law}
```

join :: m (m a) -> m a

```
nothing is being taken "out" of the monad
as the computation going deeper into the monad,
```

(a -> b) -> (m a -> m b)
(a -> m b) -> (m a -> m (m b))
(a -> m b) -> (m a -> m b)

```

\section*{References}
[1] ftp://ftp.geoinfo.tuwien.ac.at/navratil/HaskellTutorial.pdf
[2] https://www.umiacs.umd.edu/~hal/docs/daume02yaht.pdf```


[^0]:    https://stackoverflow.com/questions/16892570/what-is-in-haskell-exactly

