



Lecture 10. Functors and monads

Functional Programming

Goals

- Understand the concept of *higher-kinded* abstraction
- Introduce two common patterns: *functors* and *monads*
- Simplify code with monads

Chapter 12 from Hutton's book, except 12.2

Functors

Map over lists

`map f xs` applies `f` over all the elements of the list `xs`

```
map :: (a -> b) -> [a] -> [b]
```

```
map _ [] = []
```

```
map f (x:xs) = f x : map f xs
```

```
> map (+1) [1,2,3]
```

```
[2,3,4]
```

```
> map even [1,2,3]
```

```
[False,True,False]
```

Map over optional values

Optional values are represented with Maybe

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

They admit a similar map operation:

```
mapMay :: (a -> b) -> Maybe a -> Maybe b
```

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```

```
mapMay _ Nothing = Nothing
```

```
mapMay f (Just x) = Just (f x)
```

Map over optional values

mapMay applies a function over a value, only if it is present

```
> mapMay (+1) (Just 1)
```

```
Just 2
```

```
> mapMay (+1) Nothing
```

```
Nothing
```

It is similar to the “safe dot” operator in some languages

```
int Total(Order o) { // o might be null
    return o?.Amount * o?.PricePerUnit;
}
```

Map over binary trees

Remember binary trees with data in the inner nodes:

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

What does a map operation over trees look like?

Map over binary trees

Remember binary trees with data in the inner nodes:

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

What does a map operation over trees look like?

```
mapTree :: (a -> b) -> Tree a -> Tree b
```

Map over binary trees

Remember binary trees with data in the inner nodes:

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

What does a map operation over trees look like?

```
mapTree :: (a -> b) -> Tree a -> Tree b
```

```
mapTree _ Leaf
```

```
  = Leaf
```

```
mapTree f (Node l x r)
```

```
  = Node (mapTree f l) (f x) (mapTree f r)
```

Map over binary trees

mapTree also applies a function over all elements, but now contained in a binary tree

```
> t = Node (Node Leaf 1 Leaf) 2 Leaf
```

```
> mapTree (+1) t
```

```
Node (Node Leaf 2 Leaf) 3 Leaf
```

```
> mapTree even t
```

```
Node (Node Leaf False Leaf) True Leaf
```

Maps have similar types

```
map      :: (a -> b) -> [a]      -> [b]
          -- (a -> b) -> List a -> List b
mapTree :: (a -> b) -> Tree a -> Tree b
mapMay  :: (a -> b) -> Maybe a -> Maybe b

mapT    :: (a -> b) -> T      a -> T      b
```

The difference lies in the *type constructor*

- [] (list), Tree, or Maybe
- Those parts need to be applied to other types

Functors

A type *constructor* which has a “map” is called a **functor**

```
class Functor f where
```

```
  fmap :: (a -> b) -> f a -> f b
```

```
instance Functor [] where
```

```
  -- fmap :: (a -> b) -> [a] -> [b]
```

```
  fmap = map
```

```
instance Functor Maybe where
```

```
  -- fmap :: (a -> b) -> Maybe a -> Maybe b
```

```
  fmap = mapMay
```

Higher-kinded abstraction

```
class Functor f where
```

```
fmap :: (a -> b) -> f a -> f b
```

- In Functor the variable `f` stands for a type constructor
 - A “type” which needs to be applied
- This is called **higher-kinded** abstraction
 - Not generally available in a programming language
 - Haskell, Scala and Rust have it
 - Java, C# and Swift don't

Functors generalize maps

Suppose you have a function operating over lists

```
inc :: [Int] -> [Int]
inc xs = map (+1) xs
```

You can easily generalize it by using fmap

```
inc :: Functor f => f Int -> f Int
inc xs = fmap (+1) xs
```

Note that in this case the type of *elements* is fixed to Int, but the type of the *structure* may vary

(<\$>) instead of fmap

Many Haskellers use an alias for fmap

```
(<$>) = fmap
```

This allows writing maps in a more natural style, in which the function to apply appears before the arguments

```
inc xs = (+1) <$> xs
```


Surprising functors, take 1

Functions with a fixed input are also functors

- Remember that $r \rightarrow s$ is also written $(\rightarrow) r s$

Question

What type should we write in the `Functor` instance?

Surprising functors, take 1

Functions with a fixed input are also functors

- Remember that $x \rightarrow s$ is also written $(\rightarrow) x s$

Question

What type should we write in the `Functor` instance?

Answer

We need something which requires a parameter

- Thus we drop the last one from the arrow, $(\rightarrow) x$

Surprising functors, take 1

```
instance Functor ((->) r) where  
  -- fmap :: (a -> b) -> (r -> a) -> (r -> b)  
  fmap ab ra = \r -> ab (ra r)
```

The map operation for functions is composition!

Surprising functors, take 2

IO actions form also a functor

```
instance Functor IO where
```

```
...
```

Surprising functors, take 2

IO actions form also a functor

```
instance Functor IO where
```

```
-- fmap :: (a -> b) -> IO a -> IO b
```

```
fmap f a = do x <- a  
          return (f x)
```

This removes the need for a lot of names

```
do x <- getChar      ==> toUpper <$> getChar  
   return (toUpper x)
```

and it is much easier to read and follow!

Functor laws

Valid Functor instances should obey two laws

identity `fmap id = id`

distributivity over composition `fmap (f.g) = fmap f . fmap g`

These laws guarantee that `fmap` preserves the structure

A wrong Functor

Could you find an instance which respects the type of `fmap` but not the laws?

A wrong Functor

Could you find an instance which respects the type of fmap but not the laws?

```
instance Functor [] where
  -- Applies the function over all elements,
  -- but also reverses the list
  fmap _ []      = []
  fmap f (x:xs) = fmap f xs ++ [f x]
```


A wrong Functor

Could you find an instance which respects the type of `fmap` but not the laws?

```
instance Functor [] where
```

```
-- Applies the function over all elements,
```

```
-- but also reverses the list
```

```
fmap _ []      = []
```

```
fmap f (x:xs) = fmap f xs ++ [f x]
```

```
fmap id [1,2] = [2,1]
```

```
 /= [1,2] = id [1,2]
```

Another wrong Functor

Things can go wrong in many different ways

```
instance Functor [] where  
  -- Always returns an empty list  
  fmap _ _ = []  
  
fmap id [1,2] = []  
             /= [1,2] = id [1,2]
```

Monads

Case study: evaluation of arithmetic expressions

```
data ArithOp    = Plus | Minus | Times | Div
```

```
data ArithExpr = Constant Integer  
              | Variable Char  
              | Op ArithOp ArithExpr ArithExpr
```

Case study: evaluation of arithmetic expressions

```
data ArithOp    = Plus | Minus | Times | Div
data ArithExpr = Constant Integer
               | Variable Char
               | Op ArithOp ArithExpr ArithExpr

eval :: Map Char Integer -> ArithExpr
      -> Maybe Integer
```

Case study: evaluation of arithmetic expressions

```
data ArithOp   = Plus | Minus | Times | Div
data ArithExpr = Constant Integer
                | Variable Char
                | Op ArithOp ArithExpr ArithExpr

eval :: Map Char Integer -> ArithExpr
      -> Maybe Integer

eval m (Op Plus x y)
  = case eval m x of
      Nothing -> Nothing
      Just x'  -> case eval m y of
          Nothing -> Nothing
          Just y'  -> Just (x' + y')
```

...

Validation of data

```
data Record = Record Name Int Address

-- These three validate input from the user
validateName :: String -> Maybe Name
validateAge   :: String -> Maybe Int
validateAddr  :: String -> Maybe Address

-- And we want to compose them together
case validateName nm of
  Nothing  -> Nothing
  Just nm' -> case validateAge ag of
    Nothing -> Nothing
    Just ag' -> case validateAddr ad of
      Nothing -> Nothing
      Just ad' -> Just (Record nm' ag' ad')
```

Looking for similarities

The same pattern occurs over and over again

```
case maybeValue of
```

```
  Nothing -> Nothing
```

```
  Just x   -> -- return some Maybe which uses x
```


Looking for similarities

The same pattern occurs over and over again

```
case maybeValue of
  Nothing -> Nothing
  Just x   -> -- return some Maybe which uses x
```

Higher-order functions to the rescue!

```
next :: Maybe a -> (a -> Maybe b) -> Maybe b
next Nothing _ = Nothing
next (Just x) f = f x
```

Shorter code for the examples

For the arithmetic expression evaluator:

```
eval m (Op Plus x y)
  = eval m x `next` (\x' ->
    eval m y `next` (\y' ->
      Just (x' + y') ) )
```

For data validation:

```
validateName nm `next` (\nm' ->
  validateAge ag `next` (\ag' ->
    validateAddr ad `next` (\ad' ->
      Just (Record nm' ag' ad') )))
```

Does it sound familiar?

Remember the “bind” operation for input/output actions

`(>>=) :: IO a -> (a -> IO b) -> IO b`

Now, compare it to the next operation for Maybe

`next :: Maybe a -> (a -> Maybe b) -> Maybe b`

Another example of *higher-kinded abstraction*

return for optional values

The other basic operation for IO was return

```
return :: a -> IO a
```

This function embeds a pure value into the IO world

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Optional values provide a similar function

```
Just   :: a -> Maybe a
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return for optional values

The other basic operation for IO was return

```
return :: a -> IO a
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This function embeds a pure value into the IO world

Optional values provide a similar function

```
Just   :: a -> Maybe a
```

Maybe it is about time to introduce a new type class...

(>>=) + return = monad

A **monad** is a type constructor which provides the previous two operations

- Subject to some laws that we shall introduce later
- In addition, every monad is also a functor

```
class Functor m => Monad m where
```

```
  return :: a -> m a
```

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

```
instance Monad Maybe where
```

```
  return = Just
```

```
  (>>=)  = next
```

```
instance Monad IO where
```

```
  -- Hidden from us, mere mortals
```

do-notation for generic monads

The do-notation introduced for IO works for any monad

```
do x1 <- a1          a1 >>= (\x1 ->
  x2 <- a2          a2 >>= (\x2 ->
  ...              ==> ...
  xn <- an          an >>= (\xn ->
  expr) ... ))
```

Rule of thumb for writing monadic code: do not think about nested (>>=) at all, just use do

Shorter (and nicer) code for the examples

For the arithmetic expression evaluator:

```
eval m (Op Plus x y) = do x' <- eval m x
                          y' <- eval m y
                          return (x' + y')
```

For data validation:

```
do nm' <- validateName nm
    ag' <- validateAge  ag
    ad' <- validateAddr ad
    return (Record nm' ag' ad')
```

Tricky monadic questions

What does the following code do?

```
f :: Maybe Int -> Maybe Int
f m = do x <- m
        return 3
        return (x + 1)
```

Tricky monadic questions

What does the following code do?

```
f :: Maybe Int -> Maybe Int
f m = do x <- m
        return 3
        return (x + 1)
```

Solution

Adds 1 to the value in m, if present

- return does **not** break evaluation
- So it does not always return 3

Tricky monadic questions

```
f :: Maybe Int -> Maybe Int
```

```
f m = do x <- m
```

```
      return 3
```

```
      return (x + 1)
```

The behavior is clear by looking at the translation

- <- are turned into nested (>>=)
- return for Maybe is Just

```
f m = m >>= \x ->
```

```
      Just 3 >>= \_ -> -- "gets" the 3
```

```
      Just (x + 1)
```

Tricky monadic questions

Is the following code type correct at all?

```
g :: Maybe Int -> Maybe Int
g m = do x <- return 3
         y <- m
         return (x + y)
```

Tricky monadic questions

Is the following code type correct at all?

```
g :: Maybe Int -> Maybe Int
g m = do x <- return 3
        y <- m
        return (x + y)
```

And what about the following variation?

```
g' :: Maybe Int -> Maybe Int
g' m = do x <- Just 3
        y <- m
        return (x + y)
```

Tricky monadic questions

Does this code compile?

```
h :: Maybe Int -> IO Int -> Maybe Int
```

```
h x y = do x' <- x
```

```
        y' <- y
```

```
        return (x' + y')
```

Tricky monadic questions

Does this code compile?

```
h :: Maybe Int -> IO Int -> Maybe Int
```

```
h x y = do x' <- x
```

```
        y' <- y
```

```
        return (x' + y')
```

Solution

No, a do block works only with *one* monad

- The first <- and return require Maybe
- The second <- requires IO

The List monad

Building the Monad [] instance

Let us try to write the methods from their types

```
return :: a -> [a]
```

```
return x = _
```

Building the Monad `[]` instance

Let us try to write the methods from their types

```
return :: a -> [a]
```

```
return x = _
```

We only have two options:

- Return the empty list, `[]`
- Return the given element repeated some amount of times, `[x, ...]`

In this case, we settle for `[x]`, a singleton list

- It is the only possibility to satisfy the laws
 - But I will not show you why

Building the Monad [] instance

```
(>>=) :: [a] -> (a -> [b]) -> [b]
```

```
xs >>= f = ...
```

Building the Monad [] instance

```
(>>=) :: [a] -> (a -> [b]) -> [b]
```

```
xs >>= f = ...
```

1. We have a list of `as` and a function which operate in one
 - The natural instinct is to map one over the other
2. But `map f xs :: [[b]]`, a list of lists
3. Luckily, we have `concat :: [[a]] -> [a]`

```
xs >>= f = concat (map f xs)
```

What does the List monad model?

```
[1,2,3] >>= \x ->      do x <- [1,2,3]
  [4,5,6] >>= \y ->      y <- [4,5,6]
    return (x + y)        return (x + y)
= -- definition of (>>=) and return
[5,6,7,6,7,8,7,8,9]
=
[1+4,1+5,1+6,2+4,2+5,2+6,3+4,3+5,3+6]
```

Lists model search and non-determinism

```
[1,2,3] >>= \x ->      do x <- [1,2,3]
[4,5,6] >>= \y ->      y <- [4,5,6]
  return (x + y)        return (x + y)
```

= -- definition of (>>=) and return

```
[5,6,7,6,7,8,7,8,9]
```

=

```
[1+4,1+5,1+6,2+4,2+5,2+6,3+4,3+5,3+6]
```

The list monad applies the function over all choices of elements from each list

- For that reason we call [] the **search** monad
- Each variable can be thought as having more than one value assigned to it
 - This is called **non-determinism**

Case study: sum and Pythagorean triples

Given three numbers x, y, z , we say that they form

- A *sum triple* if $x + y = z$
- A *Pythagorean triple* if $x^2 + y^2 = z^2$

`triples xs` computes, given a list of numbers `xs`, those subsets of elements which form a triple

```
> triples [1,2,3]
[(1,2,3), (2,1,3)]
```

We are going to build it using the monadic interface to lists

Cooking sumTriple

A first approximation to sum triples is:

```
sumTriples xs = do x <- xs
                  y <- xs
                  z <- xs
                  if x + y == z
                    then return (x,y,z)
                    else []
```

The value [] denotes failure while searching

- No value is produced from ranging over an empty list

```
[] >>= f = [] = xs >>= \_ -> []
```

Introducing guard

This pattern is very common to perform search

```
guard :: Bool -> [()]  
guard True  = [()]  
guard False = []
```

We do not really care of the value returned by guard

- The important bit is that when the condition is false, we produce no more results

```
sumTriples xs = do x <- xs  
                  y <- xs  
                  z <- xs  
                  guard (x + y == z)  
                  return (x,y,z)
```

Cooking triples

Assuming we have `sumTriples` and `pytTriples`

```
triples :: [Int] -> [(Int, Int, Int)]  
triples xs = sumTriples xs ++ pytTriples xs
```

Concatenation combines solutions from multiple sources

- In a search, it works as a disjunction

Other monads exhibit the same pattern of failure and combination of results

```
class Monad m => MonadPlus m where  
  mzero :: m a  
  mplus :: m a -> m a -> m a
```

Other monads exhibit the same pattern of failure and combination of results

```
class Monad m => MonadPlus m where  
  mzero :: m a  
  mplus :: m a -> m a -> m a
```

The simplest case is Maybe: try to implement mzero and mplus!

Monads with failure

Other monads exhibit the same pattern of failure and combination of results

```
class Monad m => MonadPlus m where  
  mzero :: m a  
  mplus :: m a -> m a -> m a
```

The simplest case is Maybe, with Nothing representing failure

```
instance MonadPlus Maybe where  
  mzero = Nothing  
  mplus (Just x) _      = Just x  
  mplus _      (Just y) = Just y  
  mplus Nothing Nothing = Nothing
```

do versus comprehensions

If I had told you to write `sumTriples` without imposing monadic notation, the result would have been

```
do x <- xs
   y <- xs
   z <- xs
   guard (x + y == z)
   return (x,y,z)
```

```
[ (x,y,z)
  | x <- xs
  , y <- xs
  , z <- xs
  , x + y == z ]
```

do-notation and comprehensions are exactly the same!

- GHC provides *monad comprehensions* under a flag
- Other languages, such as Scala, only provide comprehensions for working with monads

Summary

- With higher-order functions and higher-kinded abstraction many patterns become mere functions
 - Higher-kinded abstraction refers to making a type constructor vary, in contrast to “full” types
- Functor generalizes the idea of “map”
- Monads encode the notion of “sequential computation”

Later in the course

- More examples of monads
- Utility functions for monads
- Another abstraction: applicatives