

Monoids, Monads, and Applicative Functors

Repeated Software Patterns

Stellar Science

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Why Functional Software Patterns?

In a nutshell...

```
class Foo {  
public:  
    // What goes here?  
private:  
    // etc.  
};
```

Answer Design Questions

- What are the "fundamental" operations?
- What can the user do with the provided flexibility?
- How does this relate to other classes?

Functional Patterns are Not for the User

- User's don't recognize them.
 - "What's a monadic bind operation?"
- Code becomes less clear.
 - Generic code is fun, but readable code is better.

A Bit of History

Haskell

- An academic programming language modeled after math.
- Purity is a really big deal.
- Emphasis on purity left Haskell 1.0 a toy language. Streams used as the IO model.

Then monads hit the stage...

- 1989, Eugenio Moggi uses monads to *describe* model states and exceptions.
 - 1992, Wadler uses monads to *express* IO in Haskell.
 - Category Theory becomes popularized in Functional Programming.
-

What is Category Theory?

- Investigation started in 1942 by Eilenberg and Mac Lane.
- Attempt to abstract over various mathematical domains and map between them.
- Generality made it applicable to many domains, even music theory.
- Category, Functor, Duality, Monad, Isomorphisms, ...
- All about widely repeated patterns.

Monoid

A monoid is a type T with a binary operation \oplus which combines its values.

- \oplus must be associative. That is, $(a \oplus b) \oplus c = a \oplus (b \oplus c)$ for any a, b, c which have type T .
- T has a special value e such that $e \oplus x = x \oplus e = x$ for every value x .

Numeric types with + are monoids.

- $(a + b) + c = a + (b + c)$ for all numeric types.
- \emptyset is the special value. We have $\emptyset + x = x + \emptyset = x$ for every value x which is numeric.

Numeric types with $*$ are monoids.

- $(a * b) * c = a * (b * c)$ for all numeric types.
- 1 is the special value. We have $1 * x = x * 1 = x$ for every value x which is numeric.

unsigned **with** `std::max` forms a monoid.

- $\max(\max(a, b), c) = \max(a, \max(b, c))$.
- \emptyset is the special value. We have $\max(\emptyset, x) = \max(x, \emptyset) = x$ for every unsigned x .

Monoids are all over the place.

What is the `e` value for the `float, std::min` monoid?

Does `std::vector` form a monoid with something?

What can you do with a list of monoids?

Fancy Monoids

std::optional template

A `std::optional<T>` is either "null" or has a value of type T.

```
std::optional<double> o = std::nullopt;  
// o is null, viz. 'bool(o) == false'  
o = 3.0  
// o has value 3.0, viz. 'bool(o) == true' and '*o == 3.0'
```

Is `std::optional` a monoid?

A `std::optional monoid` is a monoid

```
std::optional<SomeMonoid> append(std::optional<SomeMonoid> lhs,
                                std::optional<SomeMonoid> rhs) {
    if( !lhs )
        return rhs;
    else {
        if( rhs )
            return std::optional<SomeMonoid>( *lhs  $\oplus$  *rhs );
        else
            return lhs;
    }
}
```

Another `std::optional` monoid

```
template<typename T>
std::optional<T> append(std::optional<T> lhs,
                       std::optional<T> rhs) {
    if( !lhs )
        return rhs;
    else {
        if( rhs )
            return rhs;
        else
            return lhs;
    }
}
```

Do functions returning R form a monoid?

Functions of the same type that return monoids are a monoid

Search for n best occurrences of a word in a million documents

- Key insight: An n-heap is a monoid.
- Split documents between cluster nodes.
- Send word to each cluster node.
- Each cluster node generates a heap using parallelization.
- Each cluster node sends its heap to a collection node.
- The collection node joins the heaps.

Monoids

- Monoids scale very well.
- Monoids compose via. functions, optional, and other things.
- Monoids are common.

Functor

A functor is a class template (`Functor<T>`) with a single template parameter and a callable (`map`) which have the following properties.

- `map(f, a)` is a legal expression when:
 - `a` is a value of type `Functor<T>` for some type `T`.
 - `f` is a callable that accepts a single argument of type `T`.
 - Let `U` be the result type of `f(t)` where `t` has type `T`. The result of `map(f, a)` is type `Functor<U>`.
- If `f(t) == t` for all values `t` of type `T`, then `map(f, a) == a` for all values `a` of type `Functor<T>`.
- `map(g, map(f, a)) = map(gf, a)` where

```
auto gf = [f,g](auto t){ return g(f(t)); }
```

Functor: Intuition

- Functors are like containers.
- `map` applies a function to the *thing in the container* resulting in a new container.
- The laws provide reasonable rules that allow `map` composition.

std::vector is a functor

```
template<typename T, typename U>
std::vector<U> map(const std::function<U (T)> &f,
                  const std::vector<T> &a ) {
    std::vector<U> result;
    for(const T & t : a)
        result.push_back(f(t));
    return result;
}
```

A more efficient map

```
template<typename T, typename F>
auto map(F f, const std::vector<T> &a ) {
    std::vector<std::result_of_t<F(T)>> result;
    for(const T & t : a)
        result.push_back(f(t));
    return result;
}
```

Is `std::optional` is a functor?

Is `std::set` is a functor?

Is `std::pair` is a functor?

Is `std::function` is a functor?

std::function functor

```
template<typename P, typename T, typename U>
std::function<U (P)> map(std::function<U(T)> f,
                      std::function<T(P)> a) {
    return [f,a](P p){ return f(a(p)); };
}
```

functors allow for transformation's within

Each map strips away one layer of your datatype.

Say you have a `std::vector<std::optional<int>>` and want to get strings for each int.

```
std::vector<std::optional<std::string>> getStrings(  
    const std::vector<std::optional<int>>& ints) {  
    auto f1 = [](auto i){ return std::to_string(i) };  
    auto f2 = [](auto o){ return map(f1, o) };  
    auto f3 = [](auto v){ return map(f2, v) };  
    return f3(ints);  
}
```

Applicative Functor

An applicative functor (`Applicative<T>`) is a functor with two extra operations, `pure` and `apply`, which obey the following rules.

- `pure(t)` where `t` is of type `T` results in a value of type `Applicative<T>`.
- `apply(aff, afv)` is a legal expression when:
 - `aff` has type `Applicative<F>` for some callable `F` where `f(t)` is well defined if `f` is of type `F` and `t` is of type `T`.
 - `afv` has type `Applicative<T>` for some type `T`.
 - `apply(aff, afv)` has type `Applicative<U>` iff the result type of `f(t)` is `U`.

Applicative Functor Laws

- If $f(t) == t$ for all t , then $\text{apply}(\text{pure}(f), a) == a$ for all a .
- $\text{apply}(\text{pure}(f), \text{pure}(t)) == \text{pure}(f(t))$ for all f and t .
- $\text{apply}(a, \text{pure}(t)) == \text{apply}(\text{pure}(f), a)$ when $f(g) == g(t)$ for all g .
- $\text{apply}(a, \text{apply}(b, c)) == \text{apply}(\text{apply}(\text{apply}(\text{pure}(f), a), b), c)$ when $f(g, h)(t) == g(h(t))$ for all g, h , and t .
- $\text{map}(f, a) == \text{apply}(\text{pure}(f), a)$

Applicative Functor Intuition

- `pure` wraps a value into the container.
- `apply` applies a contained function to a contained value to get a contained result.

Note that `apply` can be extended to `n` argument functions.

`std::optional` **applicative functor**

Pure:

`std::optional` **applicative functor**

Apply:

std::optional applicative functor properties

Consider

```
const std::optional<double> a = /* etc. */;  
const std::optional<double> b = /* etc. */;  
const std::optional<double> c = apply(std::plus<>(), a, b);  
const std::optional<double> d = apply(std::negate<>(), c);
```

Or

```
const double myValue = /* etc. */;  
  
const std::optional<Command> cmd = /* fetch command */;  
  
const std::optional<std::function<double(double)>> func  
    = map(funcFromCommand, cmd);  
  
const std::optional<double> result = apply(func, pure(myValue));
```

Is `std::vector` an applicative functor?

- Is it a functor? What is `map`?
- What is `pure`?

apply **for** std::vector

You've got a vector of functions, [f1, f2, ...] and a vector of values [t1, t2, ...]. What can you do?

std::vector nondeterminism

```
const std::vector<double> a {1.0, 2.0, 3.0};  
const std::vector<double> b {10.0, 20.0, 30.0};  
const std::vector<double> c = apply(pure(std::plus<>()), a, b);
```

Many applicative functors

- `std::future`
- continuations
- exception-style errors
- behaviors in functional reactive programming
- parsers
- etc.

Parser applicative functors

What are the fundamental operations for a parser?

Let `Parser<T>` be a stdin parser that parses into type `T`.

If `p` has type `Parser<T>`, `p.read()` tries to parse stdin. If it succeeds, it returns type `T`, otherwise it throws an exception.

```
template<typename T>
class Parser<T> {
public:
    T read();

    // Friend functions go here.
private:
    Parser<T>() {}
    std::function<T ()> m_reader;
    bool m_consumesNothing;
    std::vector<char> m_startChar;
};
```

Some friend functions:

```
// Read any single char from stdin.
Parser<char> charP();

// Read particular char from stdin.
Parser<char> charP(char);

// Parse with 'lhs' if stream begins with the correct character,
// otherwise 'rhs'.
template<typename A>
Parser<A> either(Parser<A> lhs, Parser<A> rhs)

// Parse with 'a' as many times as possible.
template<typename A>
Parser<std::vector<A>> zeroOrMore(Parser<A> a);
```

either

```
template<typename A>
Parser<A> either(Parser<A> lhs, Parser<A> rhs) {
    Parser<A> result;
    result.m_consumesNothing = lhs.consumesNothing;
    result.m_startChar = append(lhs.m_startChar, rhs.m_startChar);
    result.m_reader = [lhs, rhs]() {
        const char c = std::cin.peek();
        if(std::find(lhs.m_startChar.begin(), lhs.m_startChar.end(), c)
            != lhs.m_startChar.end()) {
            return lhs.read();
        }
        else
            return rhs.read();
    };
    return result;
}
```

What is pure?

What is apply?

And we're done.

Everything else can be built on these pieces.

```
Parser<int> digitP = apply(
    successP( [](char c){ return c - '0'; } ),
    either( charP('0'), either( charP('1'), ... ) ) );

Parser<int> intP = apply(
    successP( /* convert digits to int */ ),
    zeroOrMore( digitP ) );

template<typename A, typename B>
Parser<std::pair<A,B>> operator>>(Parser<A> aParser,
                                Parser<B> bParser) {
    return apply( /* etc. */ );
}

auto twoIntsP = intP >> charP(' ') >> intP;
```

Review

- Monoids → Highly parallel patterns (\oplus).
- Functors → Do things to the stuff inside (map).
- Applicative Functors → Put stuff inside (pure). The stuff inside can do things to the stuff inside (apply).

Monad

A monad ($\text{Monad}\langle T \rangle$) is an applicative functor with an extra operation `join` which obeys the following rule.

- `join(a)` where `a` is of type $\text{Monad}\langle \text{Monad}\langle T \rangle \rangle$ results in a value of type $\text{Monad}\langle T \rangle$.

Monad Laws

A bit more complex to express in C++.

- Joining outside-in vs. inside-out shouldn't make a difference.
- Similarly for pure and join.
- See https://en.wikibooks.org/wiki/Haskell/Category_theory

Join for std::optional

```
template<typename T>
std::optional<T> join(std::optional<std::optional<T>> a) {
    if( a )
        return *a;
    else
        return std::nullopt;
}
```

Other monads

- `std::vector`
- `parser`
- functions with a single parameter of type `A`

So, what's the big deal?

The monad bind operation

The monadic bind operation is defined in terms of the other operations.

For a given Monad<T>:

```
template<typename T, typename U>
Monad<U> bind(Monad<T> m, std::function<Monad<U>(T)> f ) {
    return join(apply(pure(f), m));
}
```

Usually, you'd like bind to be an operator overload. Lets use >>.

```
// given
std::optional<int> getInt();

std::optional<int> result =
    getInt() >> [=](auto a) {
        return getInt() >> [=](auto b) {
            return getInt() >> [=](auto c) {
                return pure(a+b+c);
            }
        }
    };
```

Indent a bit differently...

```
std::optional<int> result =
    getInt() >> [=] (auto a) {
return getInt() >> [=] (auto b) {
return getInt() >> [=] (auto c) {
return pure(a+b+c);
    }
}
};
```

Now squint and you'll see something like this...

```
std::optional<int> result =  
    getInt() >> a  
    getInt() >> b  
    getInt() >> c  
    pure(a+b+c);  
;
```

Now cross your eyes and you'll see...

```
auto a = getInt();  
auto b = getInt();  
auto c = getInt();  
return a+b+c;
```

Which looks a lot like imperative computation.

**And that was a really big deal for
Haskell**

But, what do monads do for us?

- Express different models of computation within C++.
 - `std::vector` gives a language with nondeterminism.
 - `std::optional` provides a language with error fallthrough.
 - Continuation language, etc.
- Provide more control over computation.
 - Serialize and de-serialize computations.
 - Command pattern embedded language.
- Imperative template metaprogramming.

Lets wrap it up...

This is just the beginning...

More interesting patterns:

- Semigroup
- Category
- Arrow
- Comonad

Repeated Software Patterns

Monoid, Functor, Applicative Functor, and Monad.

Any Questions?

Further information:

- <https://wiki.haskell.org/Typeclassopedia>
- Category Theory for Computing Science by Michael Barr and Charles Wells