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#### Lecture 5: Effects, State Management

Johannes Åman Pohjola University of New South Wales Term 2 2023

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## Announcements

#### Assignment 1: due July 2.

#### Warning

That is a Sunday. But support may be sparse over the weekend. Plan accordingly!

#### **Help sessions**

Use the extra help sessions this week:

- Wednesday 10AM-12PM (online)
- Thursday 1-3PM (Quadrangle G045)
- Friday 1-3PM (online)



What have we accomplished?

- Mastered the rudiments of Haskell programming.
- Learned basic reasoning methods.
- Encountered useful algebraic structures.
- Data transformations and algorithm implementation in mathematically structured programs.



Next: larger-scale mathematically structured system design.



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- Previous focus: data structures.
- New focus: **control** structures.



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- An adept Haskell programmer needs to also master:
- Control.Monad (monads)
- Control.Lens (lenses, folds, traversals)

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Next: larger-scale mathematically structured system design.

- Previous focus: data structures.
- New focus: **control** structures.
- An adept Haskell programmer needs to also master:
- Control.Monad (monads)
- Control.Lens (lenses, folds, traversals)
- The remainder of this course will mostly be about **Control.Monad**.

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#### **Effects**

*Effects* are observable phenomena from the execution of a program.

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#### Effects

*Effects* are observable phenomena from the execution of a program.

```
Example (Memory effects)
int *p = ...
... // read and write
*p = *p + 1;
```

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#### Effects

*Effects* are observable phenomena from the execution of a program.

## Example (Memory effects)

```
int *p = ...
... // read and write
*p = *p + 1;
```

## Example (IO)

// console IO

```
c = getchar();
printf("%d",32);
```

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*Effects* are observable phenomena from the execution of a program.

## Example (Memory effects)

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int *p = ...
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## Example (IO)

// console IO

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c = getchar();
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```

#### Example (Control flow)

// exception effect
throw new Exception();

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#### Effects

*Effects* are observable phenomena from the execution of a program.

## Example (Memory effects)

int \*p = ...
... // read and write
\*p = \*p + 1;

# Example (Non-termination) // infinite loop while (1) {}:

## Example (IO)

// console IO

c = getchar();
printf("%d",32);

## Example (Control flow)

// exception effect
throw new Exception();

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## Internal vs. External Effects

#### **External Observability**

An *external* effect is an effect that is observable outside the function. *Internal* effects are not observable from outside.

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## Internal vs. External Effects

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#### Example (External effects)

Console, file and network I/O; termination and non-termination; non-local control flow (exceptions); etc.

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## Internal vs. External Effects

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Console, file and network I/O; termination and non-termination; non-local control flow (exceptions); etc.

Are memory effects *external* or *internal*?

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## Internal vs. External Effects

#### **External Observability**

An *external* effect is an effect that is observable outside the function. *Internal* effects are not observable from outside.

#### Example (External effects)

Console, file and network I/O; termination and non-termination; non-local control flow (exceptions); etc.

Are memory effects *external* or *internal*? **Answer:** Depends on the scope of the memory being accessed. Global variable accesses are *external*.



## **Pure functions**

A *pure function* is the mathematical notion of a function. That is, a function of type  $a \rightarrow b$  is *fully* specified by a complete mapping from the domain type a to the codomain type b.



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Consequences:

• Two invocations with the same arguments result in the same value.



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Consequences:

- Two invocations with the same arguments result in the same value.
- Only the function's return value is observable.
- Evaluation order becomes irrelevant.

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• Introduces (subtle) requirements on the evaluation order.

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- They interfere badly with strong typing (cf. arrays in Java)

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- They are not visible from the type signature of the function.
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- They interfere badly with strong typing (cf. arrays in Java)

We can't, in general, reason equationally about effectful programs!

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# **Problem: Equational Reasoning**

Equational reasoning *fails* in the presence of impure functions.

• x - x = 0 is true for all integer expressions.



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# **Problem: Equational Reasoning**

Equational reasoning *fails* in the presence of impure functions.

- x x = 0 is true for all integer expressions.
- ...but getInt() getInt() == 0 is nonsense. What if I input two different integers?

Haskell faced the I/O problem. You can't have both of these:

Equational reasoning.



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#### Monads

Monads are mathematical structures that were introduced by French mathematician **Roger Godement** in 1950. They come from *category theory*, which we're not learning here. In Oct 1992, **Simon Peyton Jones** and **Philip Wadler** showed how to use monads to do I/O *without* sacrificing purity in Haskell-like languages. The Haskell community went on to apply monads to many other system design problems.

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The next 3 lectures: building up to understand SPJ and PW's solution to the  $\rm I/O$  problem.

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# Scenario I

We will **not** introduce monads in this lecture. However, we will perform some system design tasks that hint at their existence.

## Getting stuff from a DB

Imagine we have a database full of employee records:

```
data Employee = Employee
```

- { idNumber :: ID
- , name :: String
- , supervisor :: Maybe ID
- } deriving (Show, Eq)

Each employee has a unique id number, a name, and possibly a supervisor.



We have a search field, where the user can type an ID. When the user presses the Search button, the system should output the record of the **supervisor** of the employee with the given ID (if any).



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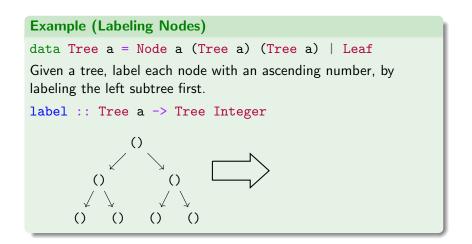
Output: The supervisor of employee #23 is ...

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State Passing								

Example (Labeling Nodes)						
data Tree a = Node a (Tree a)	) (Tree a)   Leaf					

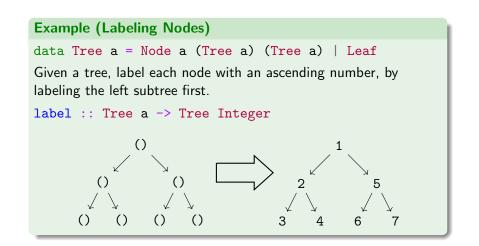
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## State Passing





## State Passing



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### Bind for State

Typically, a computation involving some state of type s and returning a result of type a can be expressed as a function:

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Typically, a computation involving some state of type s and returning a result of type a can be expressed as a function:

 $s \rightarrow (s, a)$ 

Rather than change the state, we return a new copy of the state.

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## **State Implementation**

The Haskell standard library has a State type that is essentially implemented as the same state-passing we did before! But note that we had a type synonym, whereas they have a bona fide data type.

```
data State s a = State (s -> (s,a))
```

#### Caution

In the Haskell standard library mtl, the State type is actually implemented slightly differently, but the implementation essentially works the same way.

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#### **State Operations**

get :: State s s
put :: s -> State s ()
return :: a -> State s a -- our yield
evalState :: State s a -> s -> a

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#### **State Operations**

```
get :: State s s
put :: s -> State s ()
return :: a -> State s a -- our yield
evalState :: State s a -> s -> a
```

#### Bind

```
-- our bindS is declared infix
(>>=) :: State s a -> (a -> State s b) -> State s b
-- usage (implements the `use` fn):
get                        >>= \x ->
put (x+1) >>= \_ ->
return x
```

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## **Higher Kinds**

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### **Types and Values**

Haskell is actually comprised of two languages in a layered cake:

• The *value level*, with if, let, 3 etc.

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### **Types and Values**

Haskell is actually comprised of two languages in a layered cake:

- The *value level*, with if, let, 3 etc.
- The *type level*, consisting of types Int, Bool, synonyms like String, and type *constructors* like Maybe, (->), [] etc.

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### **Types and Values**

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- The *value level*, with if, let, 3 etc.
- The *type level*, consisting of types Int, Bool, synonyms like String, and type *constructors* like Maybe, (->), [] etc.

The type level also has a type system!



Just as value-level terms are assigned types, terms on the type level are assigned *kinds*.

The most basic kind is written as \*.

• Types such as Int and Bool have kind \*. These are called *nullary types* (because they take no type parameters).

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- Maybe take one parameter, so it has kind \* -> \*: given a type (e.g. Int), it will return a type (Maybe Int). This makes Maybe a *unary type*.

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- There are binary types etc. But there are also higher-kinded types such as (\* -> \*) -> \*. We won't deal with them now.



```
Suppose we have a function:
toString :: Int -> String
And we also have a function to give us some numbers:
getNumbers :: Seed -> [Int]
How can I compose toString with getNumbers to get a function
f of type Seed -> [String]?
```

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```
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And we also have a function to give us some numbers:
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How can I compose toString with getNumbers to get a function
f of type Seed -> [String]?
```

Answer: we use map:

```
f = map toString . getNumbers
```



#### Suppose we have a function:

toString :: Int -> String

And we also have a function that may give us a number:

tryNumber :: Seed -> Maybe Int

How can I compose toString with tryNumber to get a function f of type Seed -> Maybe String?

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# Suppose we have a function: toString :: Int -> String And we also have a function that may give us a number: tryNumber :: Seed -> Maybe Int How can I compose toString with tryNumber to get a function f of type Seed -> Maybe String?

We want something like a map function but for the Maybe type:

f = maybeMap toString . tryNumber

|--|

### Functor

All of these functions are captured by the type class Functor.

class Functor f where fmap :: (a -> b) -> f a -> f b



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#### Functor

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Unlike previous type classes we've seen like Ord and Semigroup, Functor is over types of kind \* -> \*.

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### Functor

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class Functor f where
 fmap :: (a -> b) -> f a -> f b
Unlike previous type classes we've seen like Ord and Semigroup,

Functor is over types of kind  $* \rightarrow *$ .

Instances for:

- Lists
- Maybe
- Gen (QuickCheck generators)
- Functions (how?)

...and many more

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The functor type class must obey two laws:

Functor Laws
fmap id x == x
fmap f (fmap g x) == fmap (f . g) x

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#### **Functor Laws**

The functor type class must obey two laws:

Functor Laws
fmap id x == x
fmap f (fmap g x) == fmap (f . g) x

(In Haskell, it's impossible to write a total fmap function that satisfies the first law but not the second. This follows from something called *parametricity*, which is beyond the scope of the course.)



- **O** Assignment 1: due on Sunday, 02 July 2023.
- ② Last week's quizzes and exercises are due one Thursday.
- This week's quizzes and exercises are due after flex week.