## Side Effects (1A)

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## Based on

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

## Variables

## Imperative programming:

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


## functional programming

- a way to think in higher-level mathematical terms
- defining how variables relate to one another
- the compiler will translate these functions and variables to instructions so that the computer can process.


## Haskell Language Features (I)

Haskell Functional Programming (I)

- Immutability
- Recursive Definition : only in functions
- No Data Dependency


## Redefinition : not allowed

```
imperative programming:
r=5
after setting r = 5 and then changing it to r = 2.
r=2
```


## Hakell programming:

an error: "multiple declarations of $\mathbf{r}$ ".
within a given scope, a variable in Haskell
are defined only once and cannot change,
like variables in mathematics.

## $r=5$ <br> $r=2$

no mutation
in Haskell

## Variables in a file

Immutable:
they can change only based on
the data we enter to run the program.

We cannot define $\mathbf{r}$ two ways in the same code, but we could change the value by changing the file

## Vars.hs

$$
\begin{aligned}
& a=100 \\
& r=5 \\
& p i=3.14159 \\
& e=2.7818
\end{aligned}
$$

## No Mutation

```
*Main> r = 33
<interactive>:12:3: parse error on input '='
$ ghci
GHCi, version 7.10.3: http://www.haskell.org/ghc/ :? for help
Prelude> r = 333
<interactive>:2:3: parse error on input '='
Prelude>
let r=33
```

No mutation, Immutable
let $\mathbf{r}=33$

## Loading a variable definition file

```
$ ghci
```

GHCi, version 7.10.3: http://www.haskell.org/ghc/ :? for help
Prelude> :load Var1.hs
[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
https://en.wikibooks.org/wiki/Haskell/Variables_and functions
:Ioad Var1.hs
:load Var1.hs
definition with initialization

$$
\begin{aligned}
& \text { Var1.hs file } \\
& \begin{array}{l}
r=5 \\
x=1 \\
y=3.14
\end{array}
\end{aligned}
$$

Var2.hs file
$r=55$
$\mathrm{x}=1$
$y=3.14$

## Incrementing by one

imperative programming:

$$
r=r+1
$$

incrementing the variable $r$
(updating the value in memory)

## Hakell programming:

No compound assignment like operations

```
r=3
r=r+1
```

if $r$ had been defined with any value beforehand,
then $\mathbf{r}=\mathbf{r + 1}$ in Haskell would bring an error message. multiple definition not allowed
as an argument and a parameter of a function in simple cases add1 $x=x+1$
Use a function
add1 $x^{\text {atd }} 1 x^{190} 1$
$\mathrm{x}($ parameter $)=100$ (argument)
r = 3
$r=\operatorname{add} 1 r$

## Arguments and parameters of a function

binding an argument and a parameter of a function
add1 $x=x+1 \longrightarrow 101$

add1 100
x (parameter)

100 (argument)
add1 $x=x+1$
$r=100$
r = add1 r

## Recursive Definition

## Hakell programming:

a recursive definition of $\mathbf{r}$
(defining it in terms of itself)

$$
\begin{array}{ll}
a+=b & (a=a+b) \\
a-=b & (a=a-b) \\
a *=b & (a=a * b) \\
a /=b & (a=a / b)
\end{array}
$$

No compound assignment like operations are allowed
if $\mathbf{a}$ had been defined with any value beforehand, then $\mathbf{a}=\mathbf{a}+\mathbf{b}$ in Haskell would multiply defined
recursive function
factorial $0=1$
factorial $n=n$ * factorial $(n-1)$
non-recursive function
add1 $\mathrm{x}=\mathrm{x}+1$
recursive definitions are allowed only in function definition

## Simulating imperative codes

The most primitive way of $\mathbf{x}=\mathbf{v}$ is to use a function

$$
x=v
$$

taking $\mathbf{x}$ as a parameter, and pass the argument $\mathbf{v}$ to that function.

```
i = s = 0; // sum 0..100
while (i<= 100) {
    s= s+i;
    i++;
}
return s;
```

```
sum = f00 -- the initial values
    where
    fis|i<=100 = f(i+1)(s+i) -- increment i, augment s i = (i+1)
        | otherwise = s -- return s at the end
```

```
s=(s+i)
```

```
s=(s+i)
```

This code is not pretty functional programing code,
but it is simulating imperative code

## No Data Dependency

```
y=x*2
    x=3
x=3
y=x*3
```


## Hakell programming:

because the values of variables do not change
variables can be defined in any order
no mandatory : "x being declared before $\mathbf{y}$ "

## Evaluation examples

## area 5

=> $\left\{\right.$ replace the LHS area $r=\ldots$ by the RHS $\left.\ldots=p i * r^{\wedge} 2\right\}$
pi*5^2
=> 3.141592653589793 * $\underline{\text { ^ } 2}$ =>
3.141592653589793 * $\underline{25}$
=>
78.53981633974483
area $r=p i * r^{\wedge} 2$
$\mathrm{pi}=3.141592653589793$
$5^{\wedge} 2=25$
3.141592653589793 * $25=$ 78.53981633974483

## Translation to instructions

## functional programming

- leaving the compiler to translate functions and variables
to the step-by-step instructions
that the computer can process.

LHS = RHS

LHS


RHS
to apply or call a function means

## Scope

Scope rules define the visibility rules
for names in a programming language.

What if you have references to a variable named $\mathbf{k}$ in different parts of the program?

Do these refer to the same variable or to different ones?

## Haskell Scope

Most languages, including Haskell, are statically scoped.

- A block defines a new scope.
- Variables can be declared in that scope, and are not visible from the outside.
- However, variables outside the scope (in enclosing scopes) are visible unless they are overridden.
- In Haskell, these scope rules also apply to the names of functions.

Static scoping is also sometimes called lexical scoping.

## Side Effects Definition

a function or expression is said to have a side effect
if it modifies some state outside its scope or has an observable interaction
with its calling functions or the outside world besides returning a value.

a particular function might

- modify a global variable or static variable
- modify one of its arguments
- raise an exception
- write data to a display or file
- read data from a keyboard or file
- call other side-effecting functions


## Some Monad types to handle side effects

## State monad

manages global variables

## Error monad

enables exceptions
IO monad
handles interactions with the file system,
and other resources outside the program
the program itself has no side effects
the action in monads does have side effects
the functional nature of the program
is maintained (pure, no side effects)
actions in State, Error, IO monad have side effects

## History, Order, and Context

In the presence of side effects,
a program's behaviour may depend on history;
the order of evaluation matters.
the context and histories
imperative programming : frequent utilization of side effects.
functional programming : side effects are rarely used.

The lack of side effects makes it easier
to do formal verifications of a program

## Side Effects Examples in C

```
int i, j;
i = j = 3;
i=(j=3); // j= 3 returns 3, which then gets assigned to i
```

// The assignment function returns 10
// which automatically casts to "true"
// so the loop conditional always evaluates to true
while ( $\mathbf{b}=\mathbf{1 0}$ ) $\}$
https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Side_effect_(computer_science)

## Haskell Language Features (II)

Haskell Functional Programming (II)

- Pure Function
- Simple IO
- Laziness
- Sequencing


## Pure Languages

Haskell is a pure language
programs are made of functions
that cannot change
any global state or variables,
they can only
do some computations and return their results.
not modify arguments of a function
every variable's value does not change in time
However, some problems are inherently stateful
in that they rely on some state that changes over time.

## immutability

st1 = 10
use a function for
stateful computations
s -> (x,s)
st1 (v,10)
a bit tedious to model
Haskell has the state monad features

## Pure Function

A pure function has no side effects

- no state nor no access to external states (global variables)
$\rightarrow$ the function call starts from the scratch (no memory)
$\rightarrow$ every invocation with the same set of arguments returns always the same result
- no argument modifications
$\rightarrow$ calling a pure function is the same as
$\rightarrow$ calling it twice and discarding the result of the first call.

easily parallelizeable
no side effect means no data races


## Actions

## Haskell runtime

- first evaluates main (an expression)
- not to a simple value
- but to an action. (function)
- then executes this action. (function)
- the program itself has no side effects
- the action does have side effects stateful computation

```
a function as a value IO action
a
```

the functional nature of the program
is maintained (pure, no side effects)
action
IO monad
function
main = putStrLn "Hello World!"
stateful computation
(side effects)
World -> (), World)

## Simple IO

main calls functions like putStrLn or print, which return IO actions.

- primitives built into Haskell :
the only non-trivial source of IO actions:
- return trivially converts any value into an IO action.

IO actions: IO ()
putStrLn :: String -> IO ()
print :: Show a => a -> IO ()
computations resulting in values

imperative code using builtin primitives

## Primitives in PutStrLn

```
...
writeCharBuffer h_Buffer{ bufRaw=raw, bufState=WriteBuffer,
    bufL=0, bufR=count, bufSize=sz }
writeCharBuffer :: Handle__ -> CharBuffer -> IO ()
writeCharBuffer h_@Handle__{..} !cbuf = do
-- |Write a new value into an 'IORef'
writeIORef :: IORef a -> a -> IO ()
writeIORef (IORef var) v = stTolO (writeSTRef var v)
-- |Write a new value into an 'STRef'
writeSTRef :: STRef s a -> a -> ST s ()
writeSTRef (STRef var#) val = ST $ \s1# ->
    case writeMutVar# var# val s1# of { s2# -> (# s2#, () #) }
```

```
s2# -> (# s2#, () #)
S -> (x,s)
```


## IO actions in main

IO action is invoked, after the Haskell program has run

- an IO action can never be executed inside the program in order to execute a function of the type World -> (t, World) must supply a value of the type World
- once created, an IO action keeps percolating up until it ends up in main and is executed by the runtime.
- IO action can be also discarded, but that means it will never be evaluated

```
main = putStrLn "Hello World!"

\section*{Laziness}

Haskell will not calculate anything unless it's strictly necessary or is forced by the programmer

Haskell will not even evaluate
arguments to a function before calling it

Haskell assumes that the arguments will not be used,
so it procrastinates as long as possible.
unless proven otherwise

\section*{Laziness and Pure Functions}

A pure function has no side effects.
Calling a function once is the same
as calling it twice and discarding the result of the first call.
not modifying its arguments
but modifying only the result
furthermore, if the result of any function call is not used,
Haskell will spare itself the trouble
and will never call the function.
exception IO () -- () non-significant result

\section*{Laziness and Pure Functions}
```

getChar :: RealWorld -> (Char, RealWorld)
main :: RealWorld -> ((), RealWorld)
main world0 = let (a, world1) = getChar world0
(b, world2) = getChar world1
in ((), world2)

```
- not possible here to omit any call of getChar, just because the result is not used
- nor possible to reorder the getChar's

\section*{Laziness Example 1}

Division by zero : undefined - never be evaluated.
main = print \$ undefined + 1
no compile time error
but a runtime error
because of an attempt to evaluate undefined.
foo \(x=1\)
main = print \$ (foo undefined) +1

Haskell calls foo but never evaluates its argument undefined (just returns 1)

\section*{Laziness Example 2}
this does not come from optimization:
from the definition of foo, the compiler
figures out that its argument is unnecessary.
but the result is the same
if the definition of foo is hidden from view in another module.
```

{-\# START_FILE Foo.hs \#-} {-\# START_FILE Main.hs \#-}

```
-- show
-- show
module Foo (foo) where
foo \(x=1\)
import Foo
main = print \$ (foo undefined) + 1

\section*{Laziness with infinity}
laziness allows it to deal with
- infinity (like an infinite list)
- the future that hasn't materialized yet

\section*{Laziness and IO action}

Laziness or not, a program will be executed at some time.
why an expression should be evaluated?
among many reasons, the fundamental one is
to display its result.
without I/O, nothing would ever be evaluated

\section*{Do Notation}

Larger IO actions are composed of smaller IO actions.
- the order of composition matters
- sequence IO actions
special syntax for sequencing :
the do notation.

\section*{Do Notation Example}
```

main = do

```
    putStrLn "The answer is: "
    print 43

\section*{sequencing two 10 actions}
- one IO action returned by putStrLn
- another IO action returned by print
inside a do block
proper indentation.

\section*{Do Notation - input action (1)}
whatever you receive from the user or from a file you assign to a variable and use it later.
main \(=\) do
str <- getLine
putStrLn str
when executed, creates an action
that will take the input from the user.
then pass this input to the rest of actions of the do block
under the name str when the rest is executed.
(not ordinary variable, but a binding)
immutable variable
just a binding
\(x\) <- monadic value
(only the result of the
monadic value execution)
getLine
str
binded name

\section*{Do Notation - input action (2)}
str <- getLine
only the returned result is passed
getLine :: IO String
- str is not really a variable
- <- is not really an assignment
- <- creates an action (execution)
- <- binds the name str to the value (String) that will be returned by executing the action of getLine.

In Haskell you never assign to a variable, (immutable) instead you bind a name to a value.
getLine creates an action that, when the action executed will take the input from the user.

It will then pass that input to the rest of the do block (which is also an action) under the name str when it (the rest) is executed.

\section*{do block operations}
the do block is used for
sequencing a more general set of monadic operations such as IO actions

IO is just one example of a monad

main \(=\) do
\(\left.\begin{array}{l}m v 1 x \\ m v 2 y \\ m v 3 z\end{array}\right\}\) imperative code

the core of monadic operations is built by imperative programming.
inside a monadic do block
- looks like chunks of imperative code.
- behaves like imperative code

\section*{Monadic value}
a value of type \(\mathbf{M} \mathbf{a}\) is interpreted
mv :: M a
as a statement in an imperative language \(M\) that returns a value of type a as its result;
computations resulting in values

imperative code

\section*{Semicolon Overloading}

The way the actions are glued together is the essence of the Monad.

Since the glueing happens between the lines,
the Monad is sometimes described as an "overloading of the semicolon."

Different monads overload it differently.
```

main = do

```
main = do
    putStrLn "The answer is: " ;
    putStrLn "The answer is: " ;
    print 43
    print 43
main =
    putStrLn "The answer is: " >>
    print 43
```


## Semicolon Overloading Examples

can define your own sequencing rule

- execute the first statement once, and then execute the next statement
- the first statement computes a value, which the next statement can use
the Maybe monad
- execute the first statement, but only execute the next statement if the value so far isn't null


## the List monad

- the first statement computes a list of values, and the second statement runs once using each of them
mx :: Maybe a
f1 :: a -> Maybe b

$\mathrm{f} x=[\mathrm{x}, \mathrm{x}+1]$
g $x=\left[x^{*} \mathrm{x}\right]$
f $3 \gg=\mathbf{g}$
[9, 16]
1 : $[2,3] \gg=1 x->[x * 2] \quad[2,4,6]$


## Combining two statements

analogy between statements and variables

- Java and C++ have typed variables
- Haskell adds typed statements

Operators combine values, such as plus and times.
overload operators:
Integer+Integer, String+String, Vector+Vector
semicolon operator combines two statements.
a monad is a definition for the semicolon operator
it defines the meaning of a compound statement
composed of two simpler ones.
Haskell lets you overload semicolon.

Operator overload
value + value

Semicolon overload
statement
statement


## Stateful Computations \& IO: Side Effects in Haskell

The functional language Haskell expresses side effects
such as I/O and
other stateful computations
using monadic actions
IO monad
State monad

## Stateful Computation

a stateful computation is a function that
takes some state and
returns a value along with some new state.

That function would have the following type:

$$
\text { s -> }(\mathrm{a}, \mathrm{~s})
$$

$s$ is the type of the state and
a the result of the stateful computation.

$$
s->(a, s)
$$


a function is an executable data when executed, a result is produced
action (an executable function)
result is produced if executed

## Assignment in the Haskell runtime

Assignment in an imperative language :
will assign the value 5 to the variable $\mathbf{x}$ will have the value 5 as an expression

Assignment in a functional language
as a function that
takes a state and


## Assignment as a stateful computation

```
Assignment in a functional language
    as a function that
        takes a state and
        returns a result and a new state
```

an input state :
all the variables that have been assigned previously
a result : 5
a new state :
all the previous variable mappings plus

$$
s->(a, s)
$$


all the variables all the previous that have been assigned previously
$x=5$

## A value with a context

The stateful computation:

- a function that
$\rightarrow$ takes a state and
$\rightarrow$ returns a result and a new state
- can be considered as a value with a context
the actual value is the result
the context is
an initial state that must be provided to get the result not only the result, but also a new state is obtained through the execution of the function

$\qquad$ ,
a value with a context
the result is determined based on the initial state the result and the new state depend on the initial state


## Stateful computations of IO Monad

Generally, a monad cannot perform side effects in Haskell.
there is a few exceptions: IO monad, State monad

Suppose there is a type called World, which contains all the state of the external universe (actually a reference to such a data structure)

A way of thinking what IO monad does

```
type IOt = World -> (t, World)
type synonym
```

World -> (t, World)


In Haskell, no variable changes
a state transition via a function a collection of variables (state) a new collection of variables (updated)

In Haskell, a function is a value
an action - an executable function

## Stateful computation models of IO monad


https://www.cs.hmc.edu/~adavidso/monads.pdf

## Pure subset of a language

Some functional languages allow expressions to yield actions in addition to return values.

These actions are called side effects to emphasize that the return value is the most important result of a function
pure languages prohibit side effects
but, pure subsets is still useful
beneficial to write a significant part of a code as pure and the remaining error prone impure part as small as possible
computations resulting in values

actions may yield side effects
\{ impure subset \}

## Pure language features

Immutable Data
Referential Transparency
Lazy Evaluation
Purity and Effects
altered copies are used
the same result on each invocation
defer until needed
mutable array and IO

## Immutable data

Pure functional programs typically operate on immutable data.

Instead of altering existing values, altered copies are created and the original is preserved.

Since the unchanged parts of the structure cannot be modified, they can often be shared between the old and new copies, which saves memory.

## Referential Transparency

Pure computations yield the same value each time they are invoked.

This property is called referential transparency and makes possible to conduct equational reasoning on the code.
no argument modification
no global variable access
: no side effects

## Referential Transparency Examples

$$
\begin{aligned}
& \mathrm{y}=\mathrm{f} \mathrm{x} \\
& \mathbf{g}=\mathbf{h} y \mathrm{y} \\
& \text { then we should be able } \\
& \text { to replace the definition of } \mathbf{g} \text { with } \\
& \mathbf{g}=\mathbf{h}(\mathrm{f} x)(\mathrm{f} \mathbf{x}) \\
& \text { and get the same } \underline{\text { result; }} \\
& \text { only the efficiency might change. }
\end{aligned}
$$

## Lazy Evaluation

Since pure computations are referentially transparent
they can be performed at any time
and still yield the same result.

This makes it possible to defer the computation of values until they are needed, that is, to compute them lazily.

Lazy evaluation avoids unnecessary computations and allows infinite data structures to be defined and used.

## Purity and Effects

Even though purely functional programming is very beneficial, the programmer might want to use features that are not available in pure programs, like efficient mutable arrays or convenient I/O.

There are 2 approaches to this problem.

1) extended impure function
2) simulating monads

## Using impure functions

Some functional languages extend
their purely functional core with side effects.

The programmer must be careful not to use impure functions in places where only pure functions are expected.

## Using monads

Another way of introducing side effects to a pure language is to simulate them using monads.

While the language remains pure and referentially transparent, monads can provide implicit state by threading it inside them.
stateful computation

The compiler does not care about the imperative features because the language itself remains pure,
however usually the implementations do care about them due to the efficiency reasons, for instance to provide $\mathbf{O}(1)$ mutable arrays.

## Monads enable lazy evaluation

Allowing side effects only through monads and keeping the language pure makes it possible to have lazy evaluation that does not conflict with the effects of impure code.

Even though lazy expressions can be evaluated in any order, the monad structure forces the effects to be executed in the correct order.

## Monads enable lazy evaluation

But now, when you look at a do block, it looks very much like imperative code with hidden side effects. The Either monadic code looks like using functions that can throw exceptions. State monad code looks as if the state were a global mutable variable. You access it using get with no arguments, and you modify it by calling put that returns no value. So what have we gained in comparison to C ?

We might not see the hidden effects, but the compiler does. It desugars every do block and typechecks it. The state might look like a global variable but it's not. Monadic bind makes sure that the state is threaded from function to function. It's never shared. If you make your Haskell code concurrent, there will be no data races.

## Monads enable lazy evaluation

If you have a global environment, which various functions read from (and you might, for example, initialise from a configuration file) then you should thread that as a parameter to your functions (after having, very likely, set it up in your 'main' action). If the explicit parameter passing annoys you, then you can 'hide' it with a Monad.

## References

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

