Monad P3 : Mutable Variables (2A)

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

Mutable State

Functional purity is a defining characteristic of Haskell, **mutable state** can be <u>avoided</u> by the followings

- the State monad allows us to <u>keep track of</u> state in a convenient and functionally pure way
- efficient immutable data structures
 like the ones provided by the containers
 and unordered-containers packages

However, under some circumstances using **mutable state** is just the most sensible option.

https://en.wikibooks.org/wiki/Haskell/Mutable_objects

Δ

Program without mutable state - tail recursion

In C, you use **mutable variables** to create **loops** (like a **for** loop).

In Haskell, you can use recursion

to **re-bind** argument symbols in a **new scope** (call the function with different arguments to get different results).

Problem: recursive factorial implementation each function call creates <u>stack frames</u> thus eventually memory is wasted

Solution: Haskell supports optimized tail recursion.

Use an **accumulator argument**

https://www.scs.stanford.edu/14sp-cs240h/notes/00-getting-started/basics.html

Program without mutable state – guards, where clauses

Guards let you shorten function declarations
by declaring conditions in which a function occurs:
pipe ("|") symbol introduces a guard.
Guards are evaluated top to bottom
the first True guard wins.
otherwise in the Haskell system Prelude evaluates to true

Bindings can end with where clauses
where clauses can scope over multiple guards

convenient for **binding variables** to use <u>in guards</u>

https://www.scs.stanford.edu/14sp-cs240h/notes/00-getting-started/basics.html

guards, where clause examples

| x<0 = -x

| otherwise = x

holeScore :: Int -> Int -> String

holeScore strokes par

- | score < 0 = show (abs score) ++ " under par"
- | score == 0 = "level par"
- | otherwise = show(score) ++ " over par"

where score = strokes-par

https://www.futurelearn.com/courses/functional-programming-haskell/0/steps/27226

7

Purely functional

Haskell is a **purely functional** language: there are **no side-effects** and all variables are **immutable**.

All variables are indeed **immutable**, but there are ways to construct **mutable references** where we can change what the **reference** points to.

https://blog.jakuba.net/2014/07/20/Mutable-State-in-Haskell/

Side effects and Mutable state

Without side effects we wouldn't be able to do much,
which is why Haskell gives us the IO monad.In a similar manner we have many ways
to achieve mutable state in HaskellIORef in the IO monadmutable reference
mutable referenceSTRef in the ST monadmutable reference
mutable referenceMVarTVar in Software Transactional Memory (STM)

https://blog.jakuba.net/2014/07/20/Mutable-State-in-Haskell/

Mutable Variables

the functional programming

- immutable variables
- mutable variables are needed sometimes
 - 1) <u>simulate</u> mutable variables
 - 2) use real mutable variables

In either case you need a **monad** in order to deal with **mutability**, while staying **purely functional**.

http://wiki.haskell.org/Mutable_variable

State Monad and IORef and STRef Mutable Variables

simulating mutable variables

State monad

in Control.Monad.Trans.State

from the transformers package

using real mutable variables

IORef or **STRef**

Data.IORef or Data.STRef or

Control.Concurrent.STM.TVar

from the **STM** package.

http://wiki.haskell.org/Mutable_variable

Mutable Variables

Mutability is not actually expressed through monads.

 $\ensuremath{\textbf{Monads}}$ are a much more general way of

composing computations.

bind operator >>=

It happens to be useful in

composing computations for mutation.

Versioning

mutation is not really necessary in most computations

Versioning can almost always replace (Single-threaded) mutation of data structures

create a new version of data

by making a **clone** of it,

which contains the <u>mutated</u> part.

Versioning and Pointers

Instead of mutating the head of a list, for instance, you make a new list with the <u>new head</u> and the <u>same tail</u>.

But since all data structures are **immutable** in Haskell, the **creation** of the new list does <u>not</u> involve any **copying** the compiler will just use a **pointer** to the <u>existing</u> (immutable) tail.

Copying arguments

Haskell's libraries contain all kinds of **data structures** that can be easily <u>modified without</u> **mutation**. They are called **persistent data structures**.

In Haskell, a **function** that would traditionally **mutate** its **argument**, will explicitly return a **new modified copy** of **argument**

The following function takes an integer and returns an integer. By the type it cannot do any side-effects whatsoever, it cannot mutate any of its arguments. square :: Int -> Int

square x = x * x

Persistent data structures

In computing, a **persistent data structure** is a data structure that always <u>preserves</u> the previous version of itself when it is <u>modified</u>.

Such data structures are <u>effectively immutable</u>, as their operations do not (visibly) update the structure in-place, but instead always yield a new updated structure.

Persistent data structures in Haskell

all data structures in the language are **persistent**, as it is <u>impossible</u> to <u>not preserve</u> the previous state of a data structure with **functional semantics**.

This is because any change to a data structure that would render previous versions of a data structure invalid would violate **referential transparency**.

In its standard library Haskell has efficient persistent implementations for Linked lists, Maps (implemented as size balanced trees), and Sets

Referential transparency

An **expression** is called **referentially transparent** if it can be <u>replaced</u> with its corresponding **value** without changing the program's behavior.

This requires that the **expression** be **pure**, that is to say the **expression** value must be the <u>same value</u> for the <u>same inputs</u> and its evaluation must have <u>no side effects</u>.

Argument to functions

mutation is often hidden from the type system.Instead of passing and returning a modifiable argument, procedures secretly access external state (global variables) or mutate the arguments that are passed to it by reference.In Haskell, this is impossible: All functions are pure. So if something has to be modified, it must appear in the function's signature, both as input (argument) and output (part of the return type).	In imperative languages ,	
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	both as input (argument) and output (part of the return type).	

Composing functions

This leads to the necessity of **composing functions** that <u>return</u> those <u>enriched values</u> whose enrichment is necessary to transmit the **new state**.

A naive approach to this would entail a lot of **boilerplate code**.

The **monad** instead provides a streamlined way of organizing these repetitive tasks.

It allows you to *define composition* in one place and then use it to *create longer sequences* of **stateful computations**. <mark>s -> (s</mark>, a)

(s, a) : enriched values

Do notation

Together with the syntactic sugar of the **do** notation, **function composition** makes for a very concise programming style that enables to <u>imitate</u> **mutability**.

mutations are encapsulated in the state data structure, and composition automatically <u>combines</u>
state modifications performed by individual functions.

The **do**-notation even <u>hides</u> the **state** from view. But since the code is still **pure**, you may, for instance, safely use it in **parallel programming**, without any fear of data races. state threading

main = do box <- newIORef (42 :: Int) num <- readIORef box print num writeIORef box 0 num <- readIORef box print num

Boiler plate code

boilerplate code are

sections of code that have to be <u>included</u> in many places with little or no alteration.

When using languages that are considered <u>verbose</u>, the programmer must write <u>a lot of code</u> to accomplish only <u>minor functionality</u>.

https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Boilerplate_code

State Threading

Through **state-threading**. In Haskell,

there are only **expressions**, <u>no</u> **statements**.

Assume that **expressions** <u>depend</u> solely on their **arguments**.

This makes gettime() a little challenging.

What should it return?

And what should we pass it?

If we pass it nothing,

we can call clearly only gettime() once.

referential transparency

State tokens

To resolve this difficulty, Haskell <u>models</u> **side effects** by passing a **state token**;

every **side-effecting function** accepts and receives a **state token**.

This is rather like

multi-view concurrency control in a database,

every query can be seen as <u>taking place</u> with a certain **transaction ID** and also <u>generating</u> a <u>new</u> **transaction ID**.

a transaction ID is like a state token

<mark>s</mark> -> (s, a)

s : state token

Side-effecting functions with a state token

```
getTime :: StateToken -> (StateToken, StructTime).
For generalized IO, the state token
is taken to be the state of the world and
is generated in such a way that each is unique;
this accounts for the type signature of the IO monad:
newtype IO a = IO (State# RealWorld -> (# State# RealWorld, a #))
```

IO monad' state function

The IO monad is a special form of the State monad more limited scopes for state – a particular memory pool, a particular map
What IO captures is a function from State# RealWorld to a tuple of a new state and a result.
(State# RealWorld: a low-level, unboxed type)

newtype IO a = IO (State# RealWorld -> (# State# RealWorld, a #))

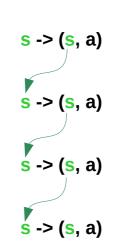
enriched value

Side-effecting function calls

Because each **state token** is **unique**, and every **side-effecting call** requires one, it falls out that:

Side-effecting calls can <u>not</u> be <u>eliminated</u> or <u>interchanged</u>: to the compiler, every such call is <u>unique</u> so there is <u>no</u> unfortunate <u>optimization</u> of side-effects

Each call <u>depends</u> on the <u>preceding</u> one; so there can be <u>no</u> <u>reordering</u> of these calls.



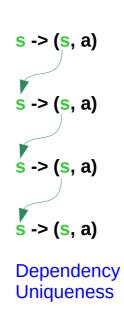
Dependency and Uniqueness

Haskell is an **expression** oriented language; and **expressions** depend on their **arguments**; in general the compiler may <u>eliminate</u> multiple <u>identical</u> calls or <u>reorder</u> calls <u>relative</u> to one another.

However, when one expression <u>depends</u> on the output of the other, the latter must <u>wait</u> for the first one to complete;

when two expressions are <u>different</u> (with <u>different argument</u>) we can <u>not remove</u> one or the other.

a way to model arbitrary side-effects.



State threading through >>= bind operator

Ensuring that <u>one</u> **side-effecting function** wait for the **token** from <u>the other</u>

IO monad simplifies the state-threading

- users need not to pass the state token
- actually it is protected from tampering

This is done through a monad's **composition**, >>= (**bind**).

Composition example

a monadic computation getTime returns a StructTime

a **function printTime** <u>prints</u> a **StructTime** then you may do so as follows:

main = getTime >>= printTime

getTime :: IO StructTime
printTime :: StructTime -> IO ()

The **bind operation** >>= of **IO** takes care of **chaining** the implicit state tokens.

Mutable Variables

The only place where **mutation** is really needed is in **concurrent programming**, but even there it can be dealt with using the **IO monad**. But that's a separate topic.

Mutable Reference Example

For example, let's create a mutable refere	ence and modify it:
import Data.IORef	
main = do	
<pre>box <- newIORef (42 :: Int)</pre>	:: IO (IORef Int)
num <- readIORef box	:: IO Int
print <mark>num</mark>	:: IO ()
writelORef box 0	:: IO ()
num <- readIORef box	:: IO Int
print num	:: IO ()

IO () type expression

some lines of this program after the **do** is an **expression** of type **IO** ()

its evaluation will <u>not</u> <u>do</u> something, like <u>readin4g</u> or <u>writing</u> the <u>IORef</u>, but instead will <u>return</u> a <u>command</u> that the <u>IO Monad</u> can choose to execute.

thunks

The Haskell runtime

will take that **command** and actually **execute** it.

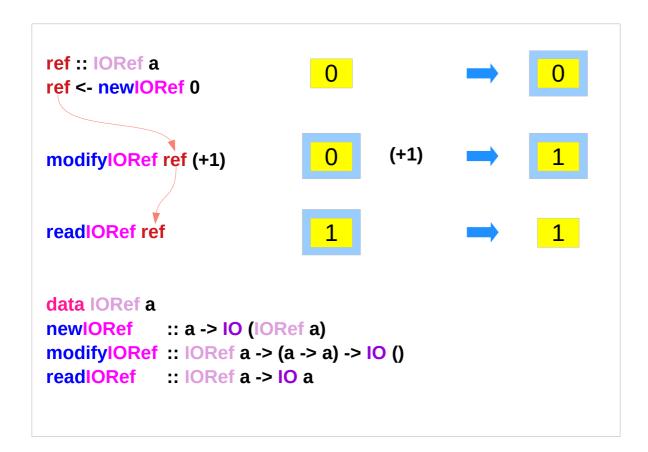
writelORef and readIORef

two kinds of expressions:		
writeIORef box 0 is of type IO () This expression does <u>not</u> change the IORef, it <u>returns</u> the command to do that.	thunks	monadic computation
readIORef box is of type IO Int it returns a command from whose execution you can extract an Int .	thunks	monadic computation

<- operator

num <- readIORef box	:: IO Int
The <- operator returns an IO Int whose execution does that extraction, putting the Int in the named variable num	
Actually, IO () and IO Int aren't different, but () is just the type of a singleton value tha	t is called <mark>Unit</mark> .
So you could do foo <- print 1 but it doesn't	serve any purpose.
print 1 is of type IO () , its evaluation returns a command and has no side effect .	

IORef Usage



http://hackage.haskell.org/package/base-4.12.0.0/docs/Data-IORef.html

IORef Example

```
newIORef :: a -> IO (IORef a)
newIORef 0 :: IO (IORef a)
ref <- newIORef 0
ref :: IORef a
```

(+1) :: (a -> a) modifyIORef :: IORef a -> (a -> a) -> IO () modifyIORef ref (+1) :: IO ()

readIORef :: IORef a -> IO a readIORef ref :: IO a

ref <- newIORef 0
replicateM_ 1000000 \$ modifyIORef ref (+1)
readIORef ref >>= print

data IORef a

newIORef	:: a -> IO (IORef a)
readIORef	:: IORef a -> IO a
writelORef	:: IORef a -> a -> IO ()
modifyIORef	:: IORef a -> (a -> a) -> IO ()
modifyIORef	:: IORef a -> (a -> a) -> IO ()

http://hackage.haskell.org/package/base-4.12.0.0/docs/Data-IORef.html

IO, ST Monads and IORef, STRef Variables

```
newtype IO a = IO (State# RealWorld -> (# State# RealWorld, a #))
```

```
newtype ST s a = ST (State# s -> (# State# s, a #))
```

```
newtype IORef a = IORef (STRef RealWorld a)
```

```
data STRef s a = STRef (MutVar# s a)
```

https://haskell-lang.org/tutorial/primitive-haskell

ST Monad – no initial state parameter

```
there is no parameter for the initial state as in State monad
ST uses a different notion of state to State;
State allows you to get and put the current state,
ST provides an interface to references of the type STRef
newSTRef :: a -> ST s (STRef s a)
readSTRef :: STRef s a -> ST s a
writeSTRef :: STRef s a -> ST s ()
```

https://en.wikibooks.org/wiki/Haskell/Existentially_quantified_types

testST example – imperative style



https://en.wikibooks.org/wiki/Haskell/Mutable_objects

State# s

data State# s

type definition without a data constructor

The primitive type **State**# represents the **state** of a **state transformer**.

State# is the primitive, unlifted type of states.

It has one type parameter **s**,

State# RealWorld, or State# s,

where **s** is a type variable.

State# s - purpose

The only purpose of the **type parameter** s is to <u>keep different</u> **state threads** <u>separate</u>.

It is represented by nothing at all.

It is <u>parameterised</u> on the desired **type of state**, **(s)** which serves to <u>keep states distinct</u> **threads** <u>distinct</u> from one another.

State# s – effect

But the only <u>effect</u> of this **parameterisation** is in the **type system**: all **values** of type **State**# are represented in the same way.

Indeed, they are all <u>represented</u> by <u>nothing</u> at all!

The code generator "knows"

to generate no code,

and allocate no registers etc,

for primitive states.

RealWorld

data RealWorld

type definition without a data constructor

RealWorld is deeply magical.

It is **primitive**, but it is <u>not</u> **unlifted** (hence ptrArg).

We <u>never manipulate</u> values of type RealWorld;

it's only used in the type system, to parameterise State#.

RealWorld - no values, no operations

The type GHC. RealWorld is truly opaque:

No data constructor

there are <u>no</u> values defined of this type, and <u>no</u> operations over it.

It is "**primitive**" in that sense but it is <u>not</u> **unlifted**!

Its only role in life is to be the type which <u>distinguishes</u> the **IO state transformer**.

RealWorld

the RealWorld tokens have type State# RealWorld, which is yet another primitive type ... of size 0. So let us retrace our steps and consider the same examples that we considered for Int# and Double#, but now look at the corresponding translation for State# RealWorld. We first considered the construction of a constant: constant_State# :: () -> State# RealWorld constant_State# _ = realWorld# This translates to

Sp = Sp + 4; jump (I32[Sp + 0]) ();

https://www.well-typed.com/blog/2014/06/understanding-the-realworld/

realWorld# – a reference to the real world

realWorld# is a <u>value</u> of <u>type</u> **State# RealWorld** which is a **token** that acts as a **reference** to **the real world**. (it is of **size** 0 and does <u>not occupy</u> any space on the **stack** or **heap**.)

State# RealWorld <u>values</u> represent the <u>entire external</u> **runtime state** of the program. The "real world", as it were.

The main value in your program

receives a **State# RealWorld value**

that is threaded through the **IO actions** that compose it.

https://stackoverflow.com/questions/32672814/where-is-the-realworld-defined

State# RealWorld

The primitive State# RealWorld

RealWorld corresponds to the **s** parameter of our **State** monad

Actually, it's two **primitives**, the **type constructor State#**, and the magic type **RealWorld** which doesn't have a **# suffix**

This is because **ST** monad also uses a **type constructor** and a **type parameter** framework

http://blog.ezyang.com/2011/05/unraveling-the-mystery-of-the-io-monad/

State# RealWorld - type

You can treat **State# RealWorld** as a **type** that represents a very **magical value**: the value of the <u>entire real world</u>.

only the **main** function can receive a **real world value**, and it then gets <u>threaded</u> through **sequence** of **IO actions**

http://blog.ezyang.com/2011/05/unraveling-the-mystery-of-the-io-monad/

MutVar# s a

MutVar# is a primitive type It represents a mutable reference, and is used by IORef and STRef.

In general, anything that ends in # is an implementation detail of GHC.

Most of these operations have wrappers (like ST) which are easier to use.

https://stackoverflow.com/questions/30448007/what-does-mutvar-mean

MutVar# s a

data MutVar# (a :: Type) (b :: Type) :: Type -> Type -> TYPE UnliftedRep

A **MutVar**# behaves like a single-element **mutable array**.

MutVar# s a

http://hackage.haskell.org/package/base-4.12.0.0/docs/GHC-Exts.html#t:MutVar-35-

RuntimeRep

GHC maintains a property that the **kind** of all inhabited types (as distinct from type constructors or type-level data) tells us the **runtime representation** of **values** of that type.

This datatype encodes the **choice** of **runtime value**. Note that **TYPE** is parameterised by **RuntimeRep**; this is precisely what we mean by the fact that a **type's kind** encodes the **runtime representation**.

For **boxed values** (that is, values that are represented by a **pointer**), a further distinction is made,

between lifted types (that contain \perp), and unlifted ones (that don't).

http://hackage.haskell.org/package/base-4.12.0.0/docs/GHC-Exts.html#t:MutVar-35-

GHC.Prim

GHC is built on a raft of primitive data types and operations;

- **primitive** in the sense that

they cannot be defined in Haskell itself

- optimised to the efficient unboxed version

the **primitive** data types or operations **unboxed** exported by the library **GHC.Prim**

have names ending in #

extensive use of unboxed types and unboxed tuples

https://downloads.haskell.org/~ghc/7.0.1/docs/html/users_guide/primitives.html

IO, IORef, ST, STRef, State Definitions

```
newtype IO a = IO (State# RealWorld -> (# State# RealWorld, a #))
newtype ST s a = ST (State# s -> (# State# s, a #))
newtype IORef a = IORef (STRef RealWorld a)
data
        STRef s a = STRef (MutVar# s a)
newtype State s a = State {runState :: s -> (s, a)}
```

https://stackoverflow.com/questions/18295211/signature-of-io-in-haskell-is-this-class-or-data

(State s) Monad

newtype State s a = State { runState :: s -> (a, s) }

instance Monad (State s) where

(>>=) :: State s a -> (a -> State s b) -> State s b

p >>= k = q where

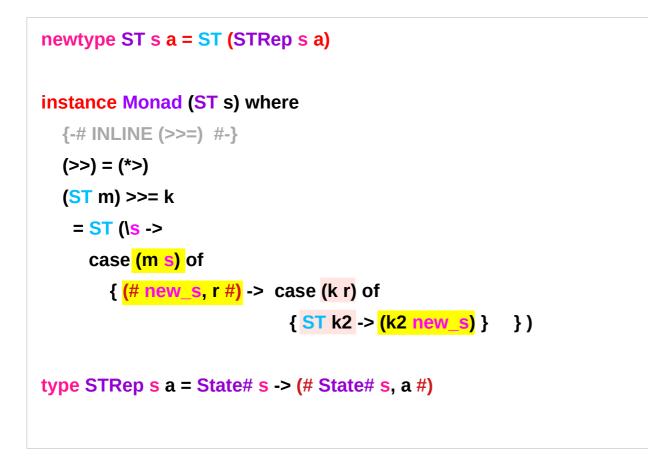
p' = **runState p** -- p' :: **s** -> (a, **s**)

k' = **runState** . **k** -- k' :: a -> s -> (b, s)

https://en.wikibooks.org/wiki/Haskell/Understanding_monads/State

(ST s) Monad





http://hackage.haskell.org/package/base-4.12.0.0/docs/Control-Monad-ST.html

Mutable Variables (2A)

IO Monad

newtype IO a = IO (State# RealWorld -> (# State# RealWorld, a #))	GHC.Types
<pre>instance Monad IO where return = returnIO (>>=) = bindIO</pre>	System.IO
returnIO :: a -> IO a returnIO x = IO \$ \s -> (# s, x #)	
bindIO :: IO a -> (a -> IO b) -> IO b bindIO (IO m) k = IO \$ \s -> case m s of (# new_s, a #) -> unIO (k a) new_s	

http://blog.ezyang.com/2011/05/unraveling-the-mystery-of-the-io-monad/

IORef Mutable Variable

newtype IORef a = IORef (STRef RealWorld a)

STRef in the IO monad.

IORefs do <u>not</u> have the <u>same</u> **safety guarantees** as **STRefs** about **locality**.

It's just a **newtype wrapper** around a <u>specialized</u> **STRef RealWorld**, and the only thing it adds over **STRef** are some **atomic operations**.

IORef and concurrency

In **non-concurrent code**, there's no good reason not to use **STRef s** values in an **ST s** monad, since they're more flexible --

you can run them in pure code with **runST** or, if needed, in the **IO** monad with **stToIO**.

In **concurrent code**, there are more powerful abstractions, like **MVar** and **STM** that are much easier to work with than **IORefs**.

https://stackoverflow.com/questions/52467957/ioref-in-haskell

IORef vs STRef

IORef and **STRef** each provide the same functionality, but for different monads.

IORef for IO Monad STRef for ST Monad

Use **IORef** if you need a managed **ref** in **IO**, and **STRef** if you need one in **ST s**.

newtypeIORefa= IORef (STRef RealWorld a)dataSTRef s a= STRef (MutVar# s a)

https://stackoverflow.com/questions/20439316/when-to-use-stref-or-ioref

IORef vs **STRef** – examples

import Control.Monad.ST	import Control.Monad.ST
import Data. <mark>STRef</mark>	import Data. <mark>IORef</mark>
exampleSTRef :: ST s Int exampleSTRef = do counter <- newSTRef 0 modifySTRef counter (+ 1) readSTRef counter	exampleIORef :: IO Int exampleIORef = do counter <- newIORef 0 modifyIORef counter (+ 1) putStrLn "im in ur IO monad so i can do I/O" readIORef counter

https://stackoverflow.com/questions/20439316/when-to-use-stref-or-ioref

ST Monad – the restricted version of IO Monad

The ST monad is

- the restricted version of the IO monad.
- the <u>less dangerous</u> sibling of the **IO** monad, or **IO computations**, where you can <u>only read</u> and <u>write</u> to memory.

ST Monad – safety measures about locality

 STRefs <u>have</u> safety guarantees about locality IORefs do <u>not</u> have

The API is made **safe** in **side-effect-free** programs, as the **rank-2 type parameter** <u>prevents</u> **values** that depend on **mutable state** <u>from</u> escaping **local scope**.

thus allows for <u>controlled</u> mutability in otherwise **pure** programs.

ST Monad – mutable state

• ST allows <u>arbitrary</u> mutable state,

implemented as actual mutable memory on the machine.

- The **mutable state** of **ST** is very efficient since it is **hardware accelerated**
- commonly used for mutable arrays and other data structures that are mutated are frozen

ST Monad – primary API

Control.Monad.ST

- **runST** -- start a new memory-effect computation.
- **STRefs**: pointers to (local) mutable cells.
- ST-based arrays (such as vector) are also common.

ST Monad – MVars

MVars : IORefs with locks

Like **STRef**s or **IORef**s, but with a **lock** attached, for **safe concurrent access** from **multiple threads**.

MVars are a more general mechanism for safely sharing mutable state.

use MVars or TVars (STM-based mutable cells), over STRef or IORef. (specially in concurrent applications)

ST Monad – atomic swap operation

MVars : IORefs with locks

IORefs and STRefs can be safe in a multi-threaded (concurrent) applications

if atomicModifyIORef is used

(a compare-and-swap atomic operation).

ST Monad – imperative code enabled

functions written using the ST monad <u>appear</u> completely **pure** to the rest of the program.

Mutable variables **STRef**s allows programmers to produce **imperative code** where it may be <u>impractical</u> to write **functional code**, while still keeping all the **safety** that **pure code** provides.

https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Haskell_features#ST_monad

ST Monad advantage

The **ST monad** allows programmers to write **imperative algorithms** in Haskell,

```
by using <u>mutable</u> variables (STRef's)
and <u>mutable</u> arrays (STArrays and STUArrays).
```

- code can have internal side effects
 - <u>destructively updating</u>
 <u>mutable</u> variables and arrays,
 - <u>containing</u> these **effects** <u>inside</u> the monad.

https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Haskell_features#ST_monad

Imperative coding style using STRef Monad

While <u>in place modifications</u> of the **n**of the type STRef s a are occurring,
something that would usually be <u>considered</u> a side effect,
it is all done in a <u>safe way</u> which is <u>deterministic</u>.

Memory modification <u>in place</u> is possible While maintaining the **purity** of a function by using **runST**

https://wiki.haskell.org/Monad/ST

ST Monad – imperative code example

a version of the **function sum** is defined, in a way that **imperative languages** are used

a variable is directly updated,..... imperative stylerather than a new value is formed and..... functional stylepassed to the next iteration of the function.

Imperative style code example that takes a **list** of **numbers**, and **sums** them, using a **mutable variable**:

https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Haskell_features#ST_monad

sumST example – imperative style

import Control.Monad.ST import Data.STRef import Data.Foldable

sumST :: Num a => [a] -> a

```
sumST xs = runST $ do
```

```
n <- newSTRef 0
```

for_ xs \$ \x ->

```
modifySTRef n (+x)
```

```
readSTRef n
```

Imperative style code to sum elements of a list

https://en.wikibooks.org/wiki/Haskell/Mutable_objects

sum example – functional style

sum :: [a] -> a
sum [] = 0
sum (x:xs) = x + sum xs
product :: [a] -> a
product [] = 1
product (x:xs) = x * product xs

```
concat :: [[a]] -> [a]
concat [] = []
concat (x:xs) = x ++ concat xs
```

https://en.wikibooks.org/wiki/Haskell/Lists_III

State Monad – APIs

The State Monad : a model of mutable state

The **State monad** is a <u>purely functional environment</u> for programs with **state**, with a simple **API**:

get

<u>set</u> the result value to the **state** and <u>leave</u> the **state** <u>unchanged</u>.

put

set the result value to () and set the state value. ... mutable

Documentation in the **mtl** package.

https://stackoverflow.com/questions/5545517/difference-between-state-st-ioref-and-mvar

State Monad – the parameterized state

The **State monad** is commonly used when needing **state** in a **single thread of control**. (not **concurrent**)

It does **not** actually use **mutable state** in its implementation.

Instead, the program is <u>parameterized</u> by the **state value** (i.e. the state is an <u>additional parameter</u> to all computations).

The **state** only *appears to be* <u>mutated</u> in a **single thread** **put** (and <u>cannot</u> be <u>shared</u> between threads).

https://stackoverflow.com/questions/5545517/difference-between-state-st-ioref-and-mvar

State and ST

Conceptually, the <u>difference</u> is in the **API**.

State can be thought of as

an **ST** with a single, implicit reference cell.

Alternately, **ST** can be thought of as

a State which manipulates a store of values.

ST and State Definitions

```
newtype ST s a = ST (State# s -> (# State# s, a #))
```

```
newtype State s a = State {runState :: s -> (s, a)}
```

https://stackoverflow.com/questions/18295211/signature-of-io-in-haskell-is-this-class-or-data

State in terms of ST (1)

```
newtype State s a = State
```

```
{ runState :: forall r. ReaderT (STRef r s) (ST r) a }
```

```
runState :: State s a -> s -> (a,s)
```

```
runState m s0 = runST (do
```

r <- newSTRef s0

```
a <- runReaderT (unState m) r
```

```
s <- readSTRef r
```

return (a,s))

State in terms of ST (2)

instance Monad (State s) where

return a = State (return a)

m >>= f = State (unState m >>= unState . f)

instance MonadState s (State s) where

get = State (ask >>= lift . readSTRef)

put x = State (ask >>= \s -> lift (writeSTRef s x))

ST and State Definitions

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```

```
newtype State s a = State {runState :: s -> (s, a)}
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ST in terms of State (1)

Assume we have a Store ADT with this interface:

data Store r

data STRef r a

withStore :: (forall r. Store r -> a) -> a

newRef :: a -> Store r -> (STRef r a, Store r)

readRef :: STRef r a -> Store r -> a

writeRef :: STRef r a -> a -> Store r -> Store r

(The 'r' parameter is to make sure that references are only used with the Store that created them. The signature of withStore effectively gives every Store a unique value for r.)

ST in terms of State (2)

```
newtype ST r a = ST { unST :: State (Store r) a } deriving Monad
```

```
runST :: (forall r. ST r a) -> a
runST m = withStore (evalState (unST m))
```

```
newSTRef :: a -> ST r (STRef r a)
```

```
newSTRef a = ST $ do
```

```
s <- get
```

```
let (r,s') = newRef a s
```

```
put s'
```

return r

ST in terms of State (3)

readSTRef :: STRef r a -> ST r a

```
readSTRef r = ST $ gets (readRef r)
```

writeSTRef :: STRef r a -> a -> ST r ()
writeSTRef r a = ST \$ modify (writeRef r a)

Subtleties

There are two subtleties.

The first is that you can't implement Store without cheating at some level (e.g., unsafeCoerce).

The second is that

the real ST implementation uses in-place update, which is only safe because the Store is implicit and used single-threadedly.

:{ :} multi-line GHCi command block

;{ ;}

```
begin or end a multi-line GHCi command block.
```

GHCi commands can be split over multiple lines, by wrapping them in :{ and :} (each on a single line of its own):

```
Prelude> :{

Prelude| g op n [] = n

Prelude| g op n (h:t) = h `op` g op n t

Prelude| :}

Prelude> g (*) 1 [1..3]

6
```

https://downloads.haskell.org/~ghc/latest/docs/html/users_guide/ghci.html

Haddock comment (1)

module Fib where -- | Compute Fibonacci numbers -- Examples: -- >>> fib 10 expression -- 55 result ----- >>> fib 5 expression -- 5 result fib :: Int -> Int fib 0 = 0 fib 1 = 1 fib n = fib (n - 1) + fib (n - 2)

https://downloads.haskell.org/~ghc/latest/docs/html/users_guide/ghci.html

Haddock comment (2)

A comment line starting with >>> denotes an **expression**.

All comment lines following an **expression** denote the **result** of that **expression**.

Result is defined by what an REPL (e.g. ghci) prints to **stdout** and **stderr** when evaluating that expression.)

https://downloads.haskell.org/~ghc/latest/docs/html/users_guide/ghci.html

References

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