

[CSE301 / Lecture 4]

# Side-effects and monads

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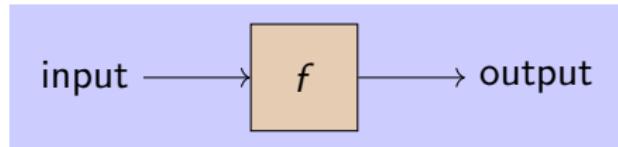
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## What are side-effects?

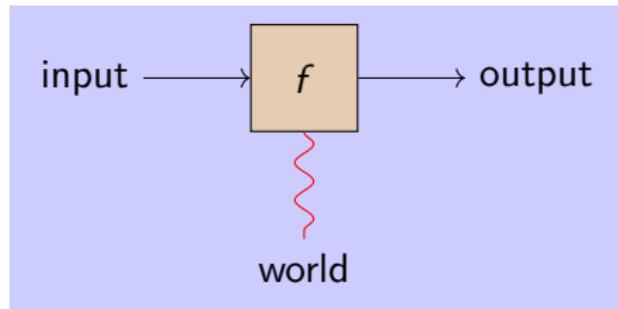
Everything that a function does besides computing a functional relation from inputs to outputs.

In other words, the difference between “functions in math” and “functions in Python”.

## What are side-effects?



*versus*



## **“pure” function = no side-effects**

```
def sqr(x):  
    y = x ** 2  
    return y
```

---

```
>>> sqr(3)  
9  
>>> sqr(4)  
16
```

## Printing debugging information

```
def sqr_debug(x):
    y = x ** 2
    print("Squaring {} gives {}!!".format(x, y))
    return y
```

---

```
>>> sqr_debug(3)
Squaring 3 gives 9!!
9
>>> sqr_debug(4)
Squaring 4 gives 16!!
16
```

## Getting input from the user, and raising exceptions

```
def exp_by_input(x):
    k = int(input("Enter exponent: "))
    y = x ** k
    return y
```

---

```
>>> exp_by_input(3)
Enter exponent: 2
9
>>> exp_by_input(3)
Enter exponent: two
Traceback (most recent call last):
  File "<stdin>", line 1, in <module>
    File "<string>", line 7, in exp_by_input
ValueError: invalid literal for int() with base 10: 'two'
```

## Querying a random number generator

```
def exp_by_random(x):
    k = random.randrange(0,10)
    y = x ** k
    return y
```

---

```
>>> exp_by_random(3)
```

```
2187
```

```
>>> exp_by_random(3)
```

```
243
```

## Reading and writing global variables

```
k = 0
def exp_by_counter(x):
    global k
    y = x ** k
    k = k + 1
    return y
```

---

```
>>> exp_by_counter(3)
1
>>> exp_by_counter(3)
3
>>> exp_by_counter(3)
9
```

## Non-standard control flow (e.g., nondeterminism via generators)

```
def exp_by_nondet(x):
    for k in range(0,10):
        y = x ** k
        yield y
```

---

```
>>> exp_by_nondet(3)
<generator object exp_by_nondet at 0x7ff77d38c830>
>>> list(exp_by_nondet(3))
[1, 3, 9, 27, 81, 243, 729, 2187, 6561, 19683]
```

## Side-effects in Haskell

Despite claims, Haskell is not really a pure language...

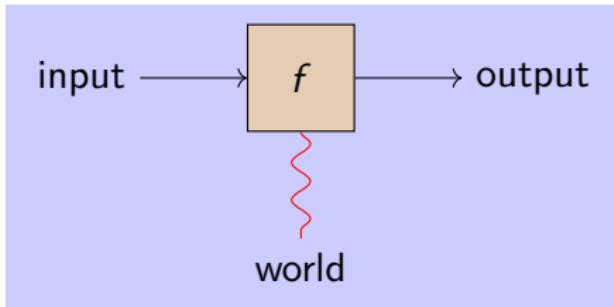
1. Functions may not terminate
2. Functions may raise exceptions
3. Run-time performance can vary wildly due to laziness

Nevertheless, these effects (at least 1 & 2) are relatively “benign”.

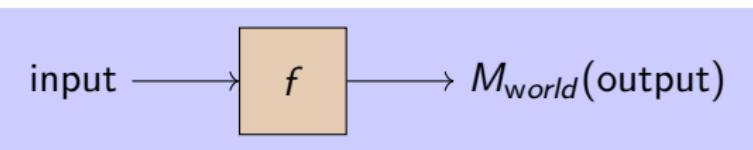
In Haskell, most “serious” effects (like getting input from the user, or reading and writing global variables) are confined to *monads*.

## The idea, very roughly

Replace



by



where  $M_{world}$  captures all possible interactions with the world.

We'll make this more precise, but first let's talk a bit about the principles of *referential transparency* and *compositionality*...

## The principle of referential transparency

Informal principle that we can replace an expression by the value it computes without changing the behavior of a program, e.g.:

```
>>> sqr(3)
9
>>> 9 == 9
True
>>> sqr(3) == 9
True
>>> sqr(3) == sqr(3)
True
```

## The principle of referential transparency

The presence of side-effects can break referential transparency!

```
>>> exp_by_counter(3)
9
>>> exp_by_counter(3) == 9
False
>>> exp_by_counter(3) == exp_by_counter(3)
False
```

## Compositional semantics

More generally, a *semantics* for a programming language is a way of assigning meanings to program expressions. A desired property of a semantics is that it is *compositional*, in the sense that the meaning of an expression is built from the meanings of its subexpressions.

The presence of side-effects presents a challenge to defining compositional semantics for programming languages!<sup>1</sup>

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<sup>1</sup>And this is also true for natural languages! See, for example, Chung-chieh Shan's PhD thesis, *Linguistic side effects* (2005).

## Toy example:<sup>2</sup> arithmetic expressions

Consider a little language of arithmetic expressions, with constants, subtraction, and division:

$$e ::= c \mid e_1 - e_2 \mid e_1 / e_2$$

Each expression  $e$  denotes a number  $\llbracket e \rrbracket \in \mathbb{R}$ , defined inductively:

$$\llbracket c \rrbracket = c$$

$$\llbracket e_1 - e_2 \rrbracket = \llbracket e_1 \rrbracket - \llbracket e_2 \rrbracket$$

$$\llbracket e_1 / e_2 \rrbracket = \llbracket e_1 \rrbracket / \llbracket e_2 \rrbracket$$

Division by zero is undefined, so  $\llbracket e \rrbracket$  is sometimes undefined.

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<sup>2</sup>Inspired in part by Philip Wadler, “Monads for functional programming”, Proceedings of the Båstad Spring School, May 1995.

## Toy example: arithmetic expressions

Translated to Haskell:

```
data Expr = Con Double | Sub Expr Expr | Div Expr Expr
```

*eval* :: Expr → Double

*eval* (Con c) = c

*eval* (Sub e1 e2) = eval e1 – eval e2

*eval* (Div e1 e2) = eval e1 / eval e2

## Toy example: arithmetic expressions

Example expressions:

$$e1 = Sub (Div (Con 2) (Con 4)) (Con 3)$$

$$e2 = Sub (Con 1) (Div (Con 2) (Con 2))$$

$$e3 = Div (Con 1) (Sub (Con 2) (Con 2))$$

And their semantics:

$$\text{eval } e1 = -2.5$$

$$\text{eval } e2 = 0$$

$$\text{eval } e3 \text{ undefined}$$

## Variation #1: error-handling

Modify the semantics to handle division-by-zero.

In a language with exceptions, we could simply raise an exception.  
Haskell has them, but let's pretend it doesn't and stay "pure"...

Idea:  $e$  no longer denotes a number, but a "number or error".

That is,  $\llbracket e \rrbracket \in \mathbb{R} \uplus \{\text{error}\}$

In Haskell, we can return a Maybe type...

## Variation #1: error-handling

```
eval1 :: Expr → Maybe Double
eval1 (Con c)      = Just c
eval1 (Sub e1 e2) =
  case (eval1 e1, eval1 e2) of
    (Just x1, Just x2) → Just (x1 - x2)
    _ → Nothing
eval1 (Div e1 e2) =
  case (eval1 e1, eval1 e2) of
    (Just x1, Just x2)
    | x2 /= 0 → Just (x1 / x2)
    | otherwise → Nothing
    _ → Nothing
```

## Variation #1: error-handling

The example expressions:

$$e1 = Sub (Div (Con 2) (Con 4)) (Con 3)$$

$$e2 = Sub (Con 1) (Div (Con 2) (Con 2))$$

$$e3 = Div (Con 1) (Sub (Con 2) (Con 2))$$

In the new semantics:

$$\text{eval1 } e1 = \text{Just } (-2.5)$$

$$\text{eval1 } e2 = \text{Just } 0.0$$

$$\text{eval1 } e3 = \text{Nothing}$$

## Variation #2: global state

Modify the semantics of expressions so that every third constant is interpreted as 0. (Yeah this is a bit weird, but so is most of life.)

The meaning of a subexpression now depends on its position. E.g.,  $\llbracket 3 - 2 \rrbracket = \llbracket 1 \rrbracket$ , but  $\llbracket 6 / (3 - 2) \rrbracket = \llbracket 6 / (3 - 0) \rrbracket \neq \llbracket 6 / 1 \rrbracket$ .

Can we define a compositional semantics?...

## Variation #2: global state

...Yes, in **state-passing style!**

Idea: every subexpression  $e$  denotes a function  $\llbracket e \rrbracket \in \mathbb{N} \rightarrow \mathbb{R} \times \mathbb{N}$  taking a count of the previously seen constants, and returning a number together with an updated count.

For the top-level expression, initialize count to 0.

## Variation #2: global state

```
eval2 :: Expr → Int → (Double, Int)
eval2 (Con c) n =
  (if mod n 3 == 2 then 0 else c, n + 1)
eval2 (Sub e1 e2) n =
  let (x1, o) = eval2 e1 n in
  let (x2, p) = eval2 e2 o in
    (x1 - x2, p)
eval2 (Div e1 e2) n =
  let (x1, o) = eval2 e1 n in
  let (x2, p) = eval2 e2 o in
    (x1 / x2, p)
```

```
eval2Top :: Expr → Double
eval2Top e = fst (eval2 e 0)
```

## Variation #2: global state

The example expressions:

$$e1 = Sub (Div (Con 2) (Con 4)) (Con 3)$$

$$e2 = Sub (Con 1) (Div (Con 2) (Con 2))$$

$$e3 = Div (Con 1) (Sub (Con 2) (Con 2))$$

In the new semantics:

$$\text{eval2Top } e1 = 0.5$$

$$\text{eval2Top } e2 \text{ undefined}$$

$$\text{eval2Top } e3 = 0.5$$

## Variation #3: combining error-handling and state

*eval3 :: Expr → Int → Maybe (Double, Int)*

*eval3 (Con c) n =*

*Just (if mod n 3 == 2 then 0 else c, n + 1)*

*eval3 (Sub e1 e2) n =*

**case eval3 e1 n of**

*Nothing → Nothing*

*Just (x1, o) → case eval3 e2 o of*

*Nothing → Nothing*

*Just (x2, p) → Just (x1 - x2, p)*

*eval3 (Div e1 e2) n =*

**case eval3 e1 n of**

*Nothing → Nothing*

*Just (x1, o) → case eval3 e2 o of*

*Nothing → Nothing*

*Just (x2, p)*

*| x2 /= 0 → Just (x1 / x2, p)*

*| otherwise → Nothing*

## Variation #3: combining error-handling and state

```
eval3Top :: Expr → Maybe Double
eval3Top e = case eval3 e 0 of
    Nothing → Nothing
    Just (x, _) → Just x
```

In this last semantics:

```
eval3Top e1 = Just 0.5
eval3Top e2 = Nothing
eval3Top e3 = Just 0.5
```

## Compare with the OCaml version...

```
type expr = Con of float
          | Sub of expr * expr | Div of expr * expr
let cnt = ref 0
let rec eval3 (e : expr) : float =
  match e with
  | Con c -> let n = !cnt in
    (cnt := n+1; if n mod 3 == 2 then 0.0 else c)
  | Sub (e1,e2) -> let x1 = eval3 e1 in
    let x2 = eval3 e2 in
    x1 -. x2
  | Div (e1,e2) -> let x1 = eval3 e1 in
    let x2 = eval3 e2 in
    if x2 <> 0.0 then x1 /. x2
    else raise Division_by_zero
let rec eval3Top e = (cnt := 0; eval3 e)
```

## Haskell version #3, rewritten using a monad and do notation

*eval3' :: Expr → StateT Int Maybe Double*

*eval3' (Con c) = do*

*n ← get*

*put (n + 1)*

*return (if mod n 3 == 2 then 0 else c)*

*eval3' (Sub e1 e2) = do*

*x1 ← eval3' e1*

*x2 ← eval3' e2*

*return (x1 - x2)*

*eval3' (Div e1 e2) = do*

*x1 ← eval3' e1*

*x2 ← eval3' e2*

*if x2 /= 0 then return (x1 / x2) else lift Nothing*

*eval3' Top e = runStateT (eval3' e) 0 ≫= return ∘ fst*

## What is a monad?

A concept originating in category theory.

Proposed by Eugenio Moggi as a unifying mathematical model of different notions of computation.

Adapted by Phil Wadler as a way of integrating side-effects with pure functional programming, in particular in Haskell.

## What is a category?

A *category* is a gadget consisting of the following:

- a set of objects;
- for every pair of objects, a set of arrows between them;
- for every object  $a$ , a distinguished *identity* arrow  $\text{id}_a : a \rightarrow a$ ;
- for every pair of arrows  $f : a \rightarrow b$  and  $g : b \rightarrow c$ , a *composite* arrow  $g \circ f : a \rightarrow c$ ;
- such that composition and identity are associative and unital in the appropriate sense.

Intuition: the arrows of a category can be seen as describing a collection of “allowable transformations” between objects.

## What is a category?

Examples:

- Set : sets as objects, arrows are *total functions*  $f : X \rightarrow Y$
- Rel : sets as objects, arrows are *arbitrary relations*  $r \subseteq X \times Y$
- Grp : groups as objects, arrows *homomorphisms*  $\phi : G \rightarrow H$
- Vec : vector spaces as objects, arrows *linear maps*  $\phi : V \rightarrow W$

## A category of pure Haskell functions

Informally, we can think of Haskell functions as forming the arrows of a category, whose objects are types.

$$\text{Int} \xrightarrow{(+1)} \text{Int} \qquad \text{Int} \xrightarrow{(>0)} \text{Bool} \qquad \text{etc.}$$

Composition of arrows is defined by function composition.

$$\begin{array}{ccc} \text{Int} & \xrightarrow{(+1)} & \text{Int} \xrightarrow{(>0)} \text{Bool} \\ & \searrow & \nearrow \\ & (>0) \circ (+1) & \end{array}$$

The identity function  $\lambda x \rightarrow x$  serves as the identity arrow  $a \rightarrow a$ .

## Beyond the category of pure functions

But... we don't always want to program inside this category!

Monads give us a way of building new categories to program in.

A monad is a special kind of *functor*.

## What is a functor?

A *functor* is a way of mapping one category into another:

- It should map objects to objects and arrows to arrows.
- It should preserve identity and composition.

Examples:

- $| - | : \text{Grp} \rightarrow \text{Set}$  sending a group  $G$  to its underlying carrier  $|G|$ , and a homomorphism  $\phi : G \rightarrow H$  to the underlying function between carriers  $|\phi| : |G| \rightarrow |H|$
- $P : \text{Set} \rightarrow \text{Set}$  sending a set  $X$  to its powerset  $P(X)$ , and a function  $f : X \rightarrow Y$  to the function  $P(f) : P(X) \rightarrow P(Y)$  defined by  $P(f) = \lambda S. \{f(x) \mid x \in S\}$ .

## Functors in Haskell

The Functor type class:

```
class Functor f where  
  fmap :: (a → b) → f a → f b
```

Note here  $f$  is a type constructor  $f :: * \rightarrow *$ .

Any instance should satisfy the *functor laws*:

$$fmap id = id \quad fmap (f \circ g) = fmap f \circ fmap g$$

## Example #1: the List functor

The list type constructor is a functor:

```
instance Functor [] where
  -- fmap :: (a -> b) -> [a] -> [b]
  fmap = map
```

(Exercise: prove the functor laws  $\text{map } id \ xs = xs$  and  
 $\text{map } (f \circ g) \ xs = \text{map } f \ (\text{map } g \ xs)$  by structural induction!)

## Example #2: the Maybe functor

The *Maybe* type constructor is a functor:

```
instance Functor Maybe where
  -- fmap :: (a -> b) -> Maybe a -> Maybe b
  fmap f Nothing = Nothing
  fmap f (Just x) = Just (f x)
```

## Rough definition of a monad, in category theory

A *monad* is a functor  $m$  from a category to itself, equipped with an arrow  $a \rightarrow m a$  for every object  $a$ , together with a way of transforming arrows  $a \rightarrow m b$  into arrows  $m a \rightarrow m b$ , subject to certain equations.

For example, the powerset functor  $P : \text{Set} \rightarrow \text{Set}$  is a monad: the functions  $X \rightarrow P(X)$  are defined by taking singletons, and any function  $X \rightarrow P(Y)$  extends to a function  $P(X) \rightarrow P(Y)$  by taking unions.

## Kleisli category

One motivation for the definition of monad is that it allows to build a new category with the same objects, but where an arrow  $a \rightarrow b$  in the new category corresponds to an arrow  $a \rightarrow mb$  in the old category. To compose an arrow  $f : a \rightarrow mb$  with an arrow  $g : b \rightarrow mc$ , we first transform the latter to  $g^* : mb \rightarrow mc$  and then use ordinary composition to get  $g^* \circ f : a \rightarrow mc$ .

For, the Kleisli category of the powerset monad  $P$  on Set recovers the category of sets and relations  $\text{Rel} \cong \text{Set}_P$ .

## Monads in Haskell (before 2014)

The Monad type class:

```
class Monad m where
    return :: a → m a
    (≈≈) :: m a → (a → m b) → m b
```

Subject to the *monad laws*:

$$\begin{aligned} \text{return } x ≈≈ f &= f \ x \\ mx ≈≈ \text{return} &= mx \\ (mx ≈≈ f) ≈≈ g &= mx ≈≈ (\lambda x \rightarrow (f \ x ≈≈ g)) \end{aligned}$$

(Note that *flip* ( $\approx\approx$ ) :: ( $a \rightarrow m b$ )  $\rightarrow$  ( $m a \rightarrow m b$ ).)

## The List and Maybe monads

```
instance Monad [] where
    -- return :: a -> [a]
    return x = [x]
    -- (»=) :: [a] -> (a -> [b]) -> [b]
    xs »= f = concatMap f xs
```

```
instance Monad Maybe where
    -- return :: a -> Maybe a
    return x = Just x
    -- (»=) :: Maybe a -> (a -> Maybe b) -> Maybe b
    Nothing »= f = Nothing
    Just x »= f = f x
```

## Monads as notions of computation

Via the Kleisli category constructions...

- List monad: category of nondeterministic functions  $a \rightarrow [b]$ .
- Maybe monad: category of partial functions  $a \rightarrow \text{Maybe } b$ .

## Evaluator #1, re-expressed using the Maybe monad

```
eval1' :: Expr → Maybe Double
eval1' (Con c) = return c
eval1' (Sub e1 e2) =
    eval1' e1 ≫= \x1 →
    eval1' e2 ≫= \x2 →
    return (x1 - x2)
eval1' (Div e1 e2) =
    eval1' e1 ≫= \x1 →
    eval1' e2 ≫= \x2 →
    if x2 /= 0 then return (x1 / x2) else Nothing
```

## The State monad

The type constructor  $\text{State } s$  is defined essentially as follows:

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

It is a monad:

```
instance Monad (State s) where
    return x = State (λs → (x, s))
    xt ≫ f = State (λs0 →
        let (x, s1) = runState xt s0 in
        runState (f x) s1)
```

## The State monad

Also, it supports “get” and “set” operations:

*get :: State s s*

*get = State (\s → (s, s))*

*put :: s → State s ()*

*put s' = State (\s → (((), s')))*

## Evaluator #2, redefined using the State monad

```
eval2' :: Expr → State Int Double
eval2' (Con c) =
    get ≫= \n →
    put (n + 1) ≫= \_ →
    return (if mod n 3 == 2 then 0 else c)
eval2' (Sub e1 e2) =
    eval2' e1 ≫= \x1 →
    eval2' e2 ≫= \x2 →
    return (x1 - x2)
eval2' (Div e1 e2) =
    eval2' e1 ≫= \x1 →
    eval2' e2 ≫= \x2 →
    return (x1 / x2)
eval2Top' e = fst (runState (eval2' e) 0)
```

## Do notation

```
do x1 ← e1  
  x2 ← e2  
  ...  
  xn ← en  
  f x1 x2 ... xn
```

is syntactic sugar for

```
e1 ≈ \x1 →  
e2 ≈ \x2 →  
...  
en ≈ \xn →  
f x1 x2 ... xn
```

## Evaluator #2, equivalently expressed with do notation

```
eval2' :: Expr → State Int Double
eval2' (Con c) = do
    n ← get
    put (n + 1)
    return (if mod n 3 == 2 then 0 else c)
eval2' (Sub e1 e2) = do
    x1 ← eval2' e1
    x2 ← eval2' e2
    return (x1 - x2)
eval2' (Div e1 e2) =
    x1 ← eval2' e1
    x2 ← eval2' e2
    return (x1 / x2)
```

## The IO monad

A built-in monad used to perform real system I/O.

Supports operations like

```
getLine :: IO String  
putStrLn :: String → IO ()
```

etc.

The use of a monad ensures proper sequentialization, as we can never “escape” the IO monad!<sup>3</sup>

---

<sup>3</sup>Technically, this is not true. There is a back door in the form of a function `unsafePerformIO :: IO a → a`, contained in `System.IO.Unsafe`. As the name suggests, this function should be used with care...

## Monads in Haskell (post 2014)

A bit more heavy since the “Functor-Applicative-Monad” hierarchy:

```
class Functor f where
    fmap :: (a → b) → f a → f b

class Functor f ⇒ Applicative f where
    pure :: a → f a
    (⟨*⟩) :: f (a → b) → f a → f b

class Applicative m ⇒ Monad m where
    return :: a → m a
    (≈≈) :: m a → (a → m b) → m b
    return = pure
```

So to define an instance of Monad, you first need instances of Functor and Applicative.

## Monads in Haskell (post 2014)

But instances of Functor and Applicative can always be retrofitted from a Monad instance:

**instance Functor M where**

$fmap f xm = xm \gg= return \circ f$

**instance Applicative M where**

$pure = return$

$fm \langle * \rangle xm = fm \gg= \lambda f \rightarrow xm \gg= return \circ f$

## Combining monads

To define Evaluator #3, we implicitly used a *monad transformer*:

```
newtype StateT s m a =  
  StateT { runStateT :: s → m (a, s) }
```

Given a monad  $m$  representing some notion of computation (e.g., partiality or nondeterminism),  $\text{StateT } s \ m$  defines a new monad with  $s$  state wrapped around an  $m$ -computation.

But it is not always clear how to combine monads.

More generally, the question of how to organize and reason about programs with side-effects remains an important open problem!