

# Coalgebraic effects and their cohandlers in programming languages

(Efekty koalgebraiczne oraz ich kohandlery  
w językach programowania)

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1 września 2020



## Abstract

Algebraic effects are a great way to model computational effects in a composable way. Nonetheless, they give rise to issues with idiomatic resource management. From mathematical side, they form free models over algebraic theories, with handlers being homomorphisms preserving the model structure. Dualizing this notion gives us comodels, which turned out to be suitable for expressing state-passing transitions in the code. We present a calculus with algebraic and coalgebraic effects, to address the issues with external state management and provide abstraction over resources.

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Efekty algebraiczne są dobrym rozwiązaniem na modelowanie efektów obliczeniowych, w sposób który dobrze się składa. Niemniej, powstają przy nich problemy z idiomatycznym zarządzaniem zasobami. Z matematycznej strony, tworzą one wolne modele nad teoriami algebraicznymi, a ich handlers homomorfizmy zachowujące strukturę modelu. Dualnym pojęciem są komodele, które okazały się odpowiednim narzędziem do wyrażania w kodzie przejść z przekazywaniem stanu. Prezentujemy rachunek z efektami algebraicznymi i koalgebraicznymi, aby zaadresować problemy z zarządzaniem zewnętrznym stanem.



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# Chapter 1

## Introduction

*My algebraic methods are really methods of working and thinking; this is why they have crept in everywhere anonymously. ~ Emmy Noether*

In this thesis we discuss issues arising from combining algebraic effects and handlers with resource management, and present a solution through coalgebraic means along with presentation of experimental programming language Freak, which is a language with (co)algebraic effects and (co)handlers, where implementation is based on Continuation Passing Style translation.

### 1.1 Problem Statement

Algebraic effects, while not a new concept, have received a lot of attention [9] in recent years, both from the theoretical and practical side.

They give the developer necessary tools for declarative programming with computational effects on a high level of abstraction, by defining effects as an API in the code. At the same time, algebraic effects preserve a lot of flexibility and have a strong theoretical foundations.

In fact, that very flexibility can be troublesome. Allowing developer for too much freedom may lead to undesired behaviour and incorrect programs.

In particular, multi-shot resumptions in effect handlers and the possibility to drop the resumption allow one to express fairly complex logic in a concise way, but at the same time, they give rise to issues that would not occur in standard control flow, especially when composing various effects together. Unwanted interaction with external resources multiple times or not invoking finalisation code are cases that may occur while using algebraic effects and handlers. Let's consider the following example:

```

handle
  let fh <- do Open "praise.txt" in
  let c <- do Choice () in
  if c then do Write (fh, "Guy Fieri") else do Write (fh, "is cool");
  do Close fh
with {
  return x -> [x] |
  Choose _ k -> return (append (k true) (k false)) |
}

```

In the above code we open file, and based on nondeterministic choice, we write to the file, and then close it. This piece of code looks harmless, however, as we invoke resumption for the second time, we are attempting to write to the closed file, and then close it once again. In fact, dropping resumption is also considered harmful, as we would not attempt to close the file.

This captures the excessive generality of effects, and is the issue that we would like to address with coalgebraic effects.

## 1.2 Thesis Outline

In the following chapter we provide a background about effects, define algebraic effects in the categorical setting as well as point out dual coalgebraic effects and cohandlers, finishing with showing related work in this area. Chapter 3 describes possible ways to approach the issue of excessive generality, Chapter 4 shows the Freak language by examples along with a usage guide, and then Chapter 5 describes the language's syntax, operational semantics and CPS translation. In the next one, Chapter 6, implementation details are revealed. We conclude in Chapter 7 by stating what the possible augmentations are, which are intended to be made in the future.



## Chapter 2

# Background

### 2.1 Computational Effects

Since the rapid development of computational theory in 1930s by A. Turing, K. Godel and A. Church, we have a well-established notion of what can and what cannot be done through algorithmic means, which we can almost directly translate to being computable by our machines. Through next years we have developed mainstream languages that are used almost everywhere, with great success.

Under these circumstances one may pose a question, why do we still bother with development of languages theory, since so much has been done already. Is there anything that drives us towards further research? Indeed, one active branch revolves around equational theory to assess equality of two programs, which we know that in the general setting is undecidable. Proof methods may include extensional, contextual or logical equality. However, there is no doubt that these formal ways of reasoning about programs, while being crucial for assessing correctness, do not bring direct benefits for everyday use cases, as they are rarely accessible by a common developer.

Other branch of languages theory, that we shall investigate more in this thesis, is about taming complexity of programs. Various methods of static analysis has been developed for various use cases, most notably, type systems. Thanks to strong and static type systems along with their implementations, we have solid tools to work efficiently on functions that are pure. That being said, we claim that the core complexity of programs comes from side effects, or more generally, computational effects, which we cannot avoid in writing anything useful.

We need to have a good way for handling computational effects. One of the ways to model them, can be done through monads [38, 28]. However, they were found to be, to say the least, cumbersome to work with when the number of different effects increase. It is perhaps not a coincidence that many functional programming languages do not have them, because of the non-composable nature of them, or at

least not composable in their implementations.

Let's put the following functions

$$\begin{aligned} f &: a \rightarrow b, g : b \rightarrow c \\ f' &: a \rightarrow m\ b, g' : b \rightarrow m\ c \\ f'' &: a \rightarrow m'\ m\ b, g'' : b \rightarrow m'\ m\ c \end{aligned}$$

where  $m, m'$  are monads. Functions  $f, g$  can be composed using standard composition, for  $f', g'$  we can use Kleisli composition operator from monad  $m$ . What in case of adding one more effect,  $f''$  and  $g''$ ?

It turns out, that it becomes complex and unpleasant to combine two functors together to form a new monad, and for this purpose, monad transformers [25] arose in Haskell. Most of the common languages avoid this by not expressing computational effects in the type system, and instead one may think about functions as being implicitly embed in a Kleisli Category over a functor  $T$  [21], where  $T$  is a hidden signature over all possible side effects that occur in our program.

TODO Reconsider reference to ncatlab on Kleisli Cat, often it's not the best resource

Not only we would like to bring back effects to our type system [36], but also do it in a way that is composable. This is where algebraic effects comes to the rescue. From theoretical point of view, we need to develop equational theory about our effects to assert correctness of our language as well as to have the right hammer to reason about our programs. From practical side, we need to have the way of taming computational effects in our programs. That is the point where we would like to introduce to unfamiliar readers a notion of algebraic effects.

## 2.2 Algebraic Effects

Algebraic effects can be thought of as an public interface for computational effects. Declarative approach allow us to write programs in which the actual semantic of source code is dependent on handler that defines the meaning of a subset of effects.

This is really an incredible feature from practical point of view, as we may substitute logic depending on the execution environment. As an example, fetching for resources can behave differently as we run tests, debug our code, or run it on production. In the same manner, they neatly allow us to abstract over implementation details.

Patterns like these are well known in programming, for which other alternatives arose. One can mention interfaces from object-oriented programming, which are also a way to describe the API of a certain component. In order to abstract from implementation details, we pass an object around which represents a certain

interface. While this is certainly better than having no abstractions at all, we need to pass this interface into every function that is going to use it. This practice is called dependency injection, and while it sounds like it solves some of the issues, we end up in functions that need to carry representants of the interfaces, and pass them in every subcall that they make.

TODO maybe example with comparison for these two approaches could be useful here?

That being said, it's only one particular issue that algebraic effects address. Their handlers may also drop the resumption or invoke it more than once. There are many other great sources for getting familiarized with effects from practical side [33, 6, 22], so we will omit further explanations. More examples can be found in Chapter 4.

## 2.3 Categorical Setting of Universal Algebra

Algebraic effects can be described via operational means, however, for the purpose of presenting the duality between algebra and coalgebra, we allow ourselves to wander a bit deeper into category theory and describe effects from denotational point of view [4].

### 2.3.1 Algebraic Theories

**Definition 2.1.** A *signature*  $\Sigma$  is given by a collection of operation symbols  $op_i$  with associated parameters  $P_i$  and arities  $A_i$ , where  $P_i$  and  $A_i$  are objects in the category of our interest. We will write an operation as  $op_i : P_i \rightsquigarrow A_i$

**Definition 2.2.** Collection of  $\Sigma$ -terms is a free algebra with a generator  $X$  for a functor  $\mu H_\Sigma$  that maps objects into trees over a given signature  $\Sigma$  and morphisms into folds over trees.

**Definition 2.3.** A  $\Sigma$ -Equation is an object  $X$  and a pair of  $\Sigma$ -terms  $l, r \in Tree_\Sigma(X)$ , written as

$$X \mid l = r$$

**Definition 2.4.** An *algebraic theory*  $T = (\Sigma_T, \mathcal{E}_T)$ , is given by a signature  $\Sigma_T$  and a collection  $\mathcal{E}_T$  of  $\Sigma_T$ -equations. We might omit  $T$  subscripts in case our theory of interest is obvious.

**Definition 2.5.** An *interpretation*  $I$  over a given signature  $\Sigma$  is given by a carrier object  $|I|$  and for each  $op_i : P_i \rightsquigarrow A_i$  in  $\Sigma$  a map

$$\llbracket op_i \rrbracket_I : P_i \times |I|^{A_i} \rightarrow |I|$$

Interpretation may be naturally extended to  $\Sigma$ -terms, such that a given  $\Sigma$ -term  $X \mid t$  is interpreted by a map which sends variables into projections from environment and terms into map composition over each subterm.

**Definition 2.6.** A *model*  $M$  of an algebraic theory  $T$  is an interpretation of the signature  $\Sigma_T$  which validates all the equations  $\mathcal{E}_T$ . That is, for every equation  $X \mid l = r$  the following diagram commutes:

$$\begin{array}{ccc} & \llbracket X \mid l \rrbracket & \\ |M|^k & \xrightarrow{\quad} & |M| \\ & \llbracket X \mid r \rrbracket & \end{array}$$

**Definition 2.7.** Let  $L, M$  be models of a theory  $T$ . *T-homomorphism*  $\varphi : L \rightarrow M$  is a map such that, for every operation symbol  $op_i$  in  $T$  the following diagram commutes:

$$\begin{array}{ccc} |L|^{ar_i} & \xrightarrow{\llbracket op_i \rrbracket_L} & |L| \\ \varphi^{ar_i} \downarrow & & \downarrow \varphi \\ |M|^{ar_i} & \xrightarrow{\llbracket op_i \rrbracket_M} & |M| \end{array}$$

We denote here  $A^n$  as *n-ary* product of  $A$ .

**Definition 2.8.** Free  $F$ -algebra on an object  $A$  (of generators) in  $\mathcal{C}$  is meant an algebra

$$\varphi_A : FA^\# \longrightarrow A$$

together with an universal arrow  $\eta_A : A \longrightarrow A^\#$ . Universality means that for every algebra  $\beta : FB \longrightarrow B$  and every morphism  $f : A \longrightarrow B$  in  $\mathcal{C}$ , there exists a unique homomorphism  $\bar{f} : A^\# \longrightarrow B$  extending  $f$ , i.e. a unique morphism of  $\mathcal{C}$  for which the diagram below commutes:

$$\begin{array}{ccccc} FA^\# & \xrightarrow{\varphi_A} & A^\# & \xleftarrow{\eta_A} & A \\ \downarrow F\bar{f} & & \downarrow \bar{f} & \swarrow f & \\ FB & \xrightarrow{\beta} & B & & \end{array}$$

**Definition 2.9.** *Free model* is just a model that is free algebra.

**Lemma 2.10.** *Free models form monads*

*Proof.* Let  $M$  be a free model of an algebraic theory  $T$  in category  $\mathcal{C}$ . We have an endofunctor  $F_T$ , which takes objects into free model and maps to unique homomorphisms for which the following diagram commutes:

$$\begin{array}{ccc} X & \xrightarrow{\eta_X} & F_T(X) \\ \downarrow f & & \downarrow \bar{f} \\ Y & \xrightarrow{\eta_Y} & F_T(Y) \end{array}$$

which immediately gives us  $\eta$  natural transformation for a monad. We can now define  $\mu$  for a monad as a unique morphism for which the diagram commutes:

$$\begin{array}{ccc} F_T(X) & \xrightarrow{\eta_{F_T(X)}} & F_T(F_T(X)) \\ & \searrow id & \downarrow \mu \\ & & F_T(Y) \end{array}$$

$F_T$  is an endofunctor, therefore it sends  $X$  into an object in  $\mathcal{C}$ . From any object we have a unique map sending an object into model, which is  $\eta_{F_T(X)}$ . From free property of our model we get a unique map  $\mu$  such that the diagram commutes, therefore we have a monad  $(F_T, \eta, \mu)$ .

□

**Definition 2.11.** *Handler* is a  $T$ -homomorphism between free models

$$H : |F_T(X)| \rightarrow |F_{T'}(X')|$$

that is, a map between carriers that preserves the structure of theory  $T$ .

Concluding from the theory that we have built, algebraic effects are just free models over computation trees, where the signature is the set of effects, and equational theory is defining rules of rewriting expressions with effects. The latter is usually irrelevant from implementation perspective, but may be important for reasoning about programs.

Effect handlers on the other hand, are transformations from one computation tree over given signature of effects into another one, where handler may serve effects and also propagate new ones.

## 2.4 Duality

### 2.4.1 Comodels

**Definition 2.12.** Comodel in  $\mathcal{C}$  is just a Model in  $\mathcal{C}^{op}$ .

We could end by stating this definition of comodels [32], and everything else would follow directly from duality. However, expanding definitions is going to give us better intuition, as well as give more solid ground for implementation. For this part, we are going to assume we operate in **Set** category.

### 2.4.2 Cooperations

We have defined interpretation of an operation as a morphism:

$$\llbracket op \rrbracket_M : P \times |I|^A \rightarrow |I|$$

following now straight from Yoneda Lemma, we have:

$$\llbracket op \rrbracket_M : |I|^A \rightarrow |I|^P$$

Let's now take a look on how it dualizes. Since we operate in **Set**, we can represent  $A^B$  exponentials as  $B$ -ary products over  $A$ , where for each argument we select one result:

$$\llbracket op \rrbracket_M : \prod_{a \in A} |I| \rightarrow \prod_{p \in P} |I|$$

We want now to embed this morphism in  $Set^{op}$ . Every arrow in opposite category is reverted, thus, products become coproducts and our morphism is reverted:

$$\llbracket op \rrbracket_M : \coprod_{p \in P} |I| \rightarrow \coprod_{a \in A} |I|$$

It turns out, that this map can be further simplified.

**Lemma 2.13.** In **Set** category, the following isomorphism holds  $\coprod_{b \in B} A \cong B \times A$

*Proof.* We can think about  $B$ -ary coproducts (tagged unions) over the same set such that we have  $B$  replicas of  $A$  and we select which replica do we want to pick. Putting it this way, it immediately follows that it's the same, up to isomorphism, as a cartesian product over indexes from  $B$  and corresponding  $A$  sets. For a more detailed and generalized results, see [29].  $\square$

Model turns into comodel [32], which we shall also call *world*. Putting this together with the above lemma, we obtain the following map:

$$\llbracket op \rrbracket^W : |I| \times P \rightarrow |I| \times A$$

which is called a *cooperation*. Meaning of that morphism, is that based on coalgebra carrier and a parameter, we obtain new state of the coalgebra and a value generated by coalgebra. This state-alike result that we have obtained by dualizing models is indeed surprising, and it's expected that reader may feel astonished after seeing it for the first time. This observation was made in [29].

### 2.4.3 Coalgebraic Effects

We have now derived a dual concept to algebraic effects and handlers, which in the literature are also called comodels and runners [37, 2]. As we have seen, comodels turned into state-passing (co)operations, which in programming languages, may be a way to model interaction with external resources, where based on current configuration and some parameter, we obtain new configuration along with it's result.

### 2.4.4 Coinductive Reasoning

Induction is a way of constructing new structures. Recursion is a way of folding inductively defined structure in a terminating way. Recursive functions (not to be confused with recursive computability class), should shrink the argument in each call, meaning that it eventually ends up terminating in a base case.

Coinduction is literally a dual notion to induction. We *observe* possibly infinite structures, by doing deconstruction. Corecursion, is a way of productively defining new, possibly enlarged structures. Due to infinity, the evaluation should be lazy, whereas in induction it may be eager.

Here is a table that summarizes difference between these two methods of reasoning:

feature	induction	coinduction
basic activity	construction	deconstruction
derived activity	deconstruction	construction
functions shape	inductive domain	coinductive codomain
(co)recursive calls	shrinks the argument	grows the result
functions feature	terminating	productive
evaluation	possibly eager	necessarily lazy

From categorical standpoint, coinduction is formed over a final coalgebra, where corecursion is the mediator between any coalgebra into a final one, and coinductive proof principle corresponds to the uniqueness of the mediator. Recall that coalgebraic effects arises from a particular type of a final coalgebra, namely, cofree coalgebra.

TODO Not sure which paper to cite here for a deeper dive into the upper topic. Book *Initial Algebras, Terminal Coalgebras, and the Theory of Fixed Points of Functors* by Adámek, Milius and S. Moss from which I have studied is no longer available on the internet, as it was a draft under construction.

Reader that focuses on pragmatism may pose a question, why do we even want to reason about infinite structures? They never appear in practice! In fact, it's very common to operate on never-ending transition systems or streams of data, where finitary means of reasoning are of no use, as we can't expect an end to stream.

Operating on coinductive structures may involve modification of the internal state of the machine that is generating the infinite streams, or in more concrete scenario, alternation of the external resource that is providing us the data.

For a better understanding and intuition, we shall illustrate now the difference based on inductive and coinductive relation. Recall that the set  $\Lambda$  of  $\lambda$ -terms is given by the following grammar:

$$e ::= x \mid \lambda x.e \mid e_1 e_2$$

where  $\Lambda^0 \subseteq \Lambda$  is a set of *closed*  $\lambda$ -terms, meaning, terms without free variables. Let's now define an inductive, and coinductive predicate. Relation  $\Downarrow \subseteq \Lambda^0 \times \Lambda^0$  (convergence) for call-by-value  $\lambda$ -calculus is defined as follows:

$$\frac{}{\lambda x.e \Downarrow \lambda x.e} \quad \frac{e_1 \Downarrow \lambda x.e_0 \quad e_0[e_2/x] \Downarrow e'}{e_1 e_2 \Downarrow e'}$$

which means that  $\Downarrow$  is the *smallest* predicate *closed forward* under the above rules. Relation can be inductively built from empty set and then in a fixed-point manner we can add more terms. Let's now see a relation  $\Uparrow \subseteq \Lambda^0$  of *divergent* terms, which is coinductively defined as follows:

$$\frac{e_1 \Uparrow}{e_1 e_2 \Uparrow} \quad \frac{e_1 \Downarrow \lambda x.e_0 \quad e_0[e_2/x] \Uparrow}{e_1 e_2 \Uparrow}$$

which means that  $\Uparrow$  is the *greatest* predicate *closed backwards* under the above rules, relation can be coinductively obtained by starting with  $\Lambda_0$ , and then by removing elements that do not fit the rules.

For more detailed introduction into coinduction and other examples, see [19, 35] or for a deeper dive [1].



## 2.5 Related Work

### 2.5.1 Algebraic Effects

Except from Links language [17], on which the implementation is based, there are currently many other alternatives available. One may take a look at Frank [26], which provides support for multihandlers, Koka [24], Helium [8] or Eff [5]. Except from separate languages, many libraries arose for existing ones like Haskell, Idris, Scala or Multicore OCaml.

In fact, libraries for algebraic effects also arose in mainstream languages, such as C [23] or Python [11]. In Python, effects are implemented through generators [20], using built-in feature of sending value when doing *yield* operation. Resumptions in handlers that are sending value are one-shot and tail-recursive.

As can be seen in the J. Yallop repository [9], algebraic effects and handlers are now trending branch in the programming languages theory.

### 2.5.2 Coalgebraic Effects

From theoretical side, research on comodels and it's relation to state dates to papers by John Power et. al. [32, 29], and on the runners of comodels to T. Uustalu [37].

Practical part that is closest to topic of the thesis, is work done by Danel Ahman and Andrej Bauer [2], as well as their implementation of a  $\lambda_{coop}$  language [10], which is a calculus with runners of coalgebraic effects that ensures linear usage of resources as well as execution of code handling finalisation.



## Chapter 3

# Potential Solutions

It can be seen, that issues lie with the fact, that interacting with coalgebras may lead to change of their internal state system. Examples include change of state in NFA, taking next element in an infinite stream or a closing file. Finalization must occur after initialization, thus we conclude that resumption should be called at least once. However, modifying state twice the same way can also lead to unwanted behaviour, as it was seen in Section 1.1, therefore it should be invoked exactly once.

**Lemma 3.1.** *Problem of detection whether resumption is called only once is undecidable.*

*Proof.* Follows directly from Rice’s Theorem, as checking whether given function is going to be called is a nontrivial semantic property of a program.  $\square$

One of the ways to approach this problem, caused by extensive generality of effects, is the introduction of dual Coalgebraic effects, also named coeffects, for which we shall discuss various methods of implementation.

### 3.1 Dynamic Constraints Checking

One approach is to dynamically check against contract that continuation may only be called once. In this setting we are sure that our program will not accidentally go into wrong state, however by definition we lack static analysis to prevent errors before they occur.

### 3.2 Linear Types

Imposition of a single call of resumption, can be thought in a way that continuation is ‘consumable’, such that it’s not available after one takes use of it. Putting it

in that way, it immediately reminds of linear logic [13], where premises of linear implications are no longer of use in conclusion, and in case of linear type theory, binding variable from expression A, disallows use of variables in A. Implementation of coalgebraic effects might be simplified in languages that already support linear type system, such as Rust [34].

In fact, there is a bijective translation between language with algebraic effects and calculus with linear type theory, and *every monad embeds in a linear state monad* [27].

TODO should this section be further extended?

### 3.3 Data-Flow Analysis

Another static analysis of the program.

- TODO Describe what is data-flow analysis
- TODO Give example for constant folding
- TODO Propose analysis for coalgebraic effects. Not sure if that's not too much, as it's not the goal of this thesis. Definitely leave this section for later.

### 3.4 Cohandlers as Separate Constructs

Simplify semantics by separating coalgebraic effects into a new, restricted construct in programming language

TODO muuuch longer explanation of this topic

## Chapter 4

# (Co)Effectful Programming

### 4.1 Examples

In this section we present a few examples to show the capabilities of the language. The ideas have been based on [6], and thus will not be described in great details. More exemplary programs in Freak language can be found in `src/programs` directory [12].

#### 4.1.1 Choice

The first example will be based on modelling (nondeterministic) choice in the program. We will make two decisions, which will affect the computation result:

```
let c1 <- do Choice () in
let c2 <- do Choice () in
let x <- if c1 then return 10 else return 20 in
let y <- if c2 then return 0 else return 5 in
return x - y
```

With that in hand, we may want to define effect handlers:

```
handle ... with {
  Choice p r ->
    let t <- r 1 in
    let f <- r 0 in
    <PLACEHOLDER> |
  return x -> return x
}
```

where in the `<PLACEHOLDER>` we can define what to do with the computation. For example, min-max strategy for picking the minimum value:

```
if t < f then return t else return f
```

where the code evaluates to 5. Another example is a handler that collects all possible results, which can be achieved by putting `return (t, f)` in the `<PLACEHOLDER>`, which evaluates to `((10, 5), (20, 15))`.

### 4.1.2 Exceptions

Exceptions are simply algebraic effect handlers which drop the resumption.

```
handle
  if x == 0 then do ZeroDivisionError ()
  else return 1/x
with {
  ZeroDivisionError p r -> return 42 |
  return x -> return x
}
```

Where we imagine that  $x$  variable has been bound previously.

### 4.1.3 Taming Side effects

The complexity of the programs and their performance usually comes from side effects. Algebraic effects allow us to define code in a declarative manner, and hence neatly tame the side effects that they produce. This gives us a lot of flexibility in the actual meaning without duplicating the code. Let's consider the following very basic code snippet:

```
let x <- do Fetch () in
-- operate on x
```

The code is dependent on a context in which it is executed, which here is the handler that defines the behaviour of the algebraic `Fetch` effect. In the imperative, or even functional approach, we would need to provide the interface for fetching the data by doing dependency injection or even embedding the operation directly. Here we are just stating what operation we are performing, leaving the interpretation up to the execution context, which could do the fetching or mock the external resource.

These implications are straightforward when looking from a categorical standpoint, where effects are viewed as free models of algebraic theories [31], and handlers

are homomorphisms preserving the model structure [30]. Nevertheless, the results are very exciting for programming use cases.

## 4.2 Coexamples

TODO Examples for cohndlers

## 4.3 Usage guide

As of this day, two implementations are available, one based on the curried translation from Appel [3], and the second one based directly on the uncurried translation with continuations as explicit stacks [16]. More details can be found in Section 6. All commands are available within the `src` directory.

### 4.3.1 Build and install

- Install dependencies: `make install`
- Select implementation: `make link-lists` (default) vs `make link-appel`
- Compile: `make build`
- Link to PATH: `sudo make link`
- Remove artifacts: `make clean`

After compiling and linking program to PATH, one may evaluate program as follows: `freak programs/choicesList.fk` The actual code is described in Section 4.1.1

### 4.3.2 Running tests

Test cases are available [here](#), they include both inline and file-based tests. For more details about writing tests, one may refer to *HUnit documentation* [18].

- Run tests: `make tests`
- Run code linter: `make lint`
- Compile, run linter and tests: `make check`





## Chapter 5

# Calculus of Freak language

### 5.1 Syntax

The syntax for the calculus is shown below.  $\text{nat } n$  represents an integer  $n$ , ‘string’ a string value,  $V \oplus W$  and  $V \approx W$  are respectively binary and relational operators, where we support basic arithmetic and comparison operations. **if**  $V$  **then**  $M$  **else**  $N$  is a standard branching statement. The other constructs are just as in Links [16], with slight syntax modifications. Actual programs in Freak can be found in Section 4.1.

TODO cohandlers

$\langle \text{Values } V, W \rangle ::= x$   
|  $\text{nat } n$  | ‘string’  
|  $\lambda x : A \rightarrow M$  | **rec**  $g \ x \rightarrow M$   
|  $V \oplus W$  |  $V \approx W$   
|  $\langle \rangle$  |  $\{\ell = V; W\}$  |  $[\ell \ V]^R$

$\langle \text{Computations } M, N \rangle ::= V \ W$   
| **if**  $V$  **then**  $M$  **else**  $N$   
| **let**  $\{\ell = x; y\} = V$  **in**  $N$   
| **case**  $V\{\ell \ x \rightarrow M; y \rightarrow N\}$  | **absurd**  $V$   
| **return**  $V$  | **let**  $x \leftarrow M$  **in**  $N$   
| **do**  $\ell \ V$  | **handle**  $M$  **with**  $\{H\}$

$\langle \text{Handlers } H \rangle ::= \text{return } x \rightarrow M$  |  $\ell \ p \ r \rightarrow M, H$

$\langle \text{Binary operators } \oplus \rangle ::= +$  |  $-$  |  $*$  |  $/$

$\langle \text{Relational operators } \approx \rangle ::= <$  |  $\leq$  |  $>$  |  $\geq$  |  $==$  |  $!=$

## 5.2 Dynamics

Semantic of Freak is heavily based on Links language [16], for which the source language's dynamics have been described extensively by providing small-step operational semantics, continuation passing style transformation [17] as well as abstract machine [14], which was proved to coincide with CPS translation. That being said, Freak introduces new basic constructs to the language, for which we shall define the semantics.

Extension of the evaluation contexts:

$$\mathcal{E} ::= \mathcal{E} \oplus W \mid \text{nat } n \oplus \mathcal{E} \mid \text{if } \mathcal{E} \text{ then } M \text{ else } N$$

Small-step operational semantics:

$$\begin{aligned} \text{if } \text{nat } n \text{ then } M \text{ else } N &\rightsquigarrow M && \text{if } n \neq 0 \\ \text{if } \text{nat } n \text{ then } M \text{ else } N &\rightsquigarrow N && \text{if } n = 0 \end{aligned}$$

$$\begin{aligned} \text{nat } n \oplus \text{nat } n' &\rightsquigarrow n'' && \text{if } n'' = n \oplus n' \\ \text{nat } n \approx \text{nat } n' &\rightsquigarrow 1 && \text{if } n \approx n' \\ \text{nat } n \approx \text{nat } n' &\rightsquigarrow 0 && \text{if } n \not\approx n' \end{aligned}$$

TODO cohandlers

## Chapter 6

# Implementation

The Freak implementation is available on github [12], written purely in Haskell. Two inherently different takes at implementations were made. The first one is based on curried translation from A. Appel [3] book, and the second one on Links language [17, 16], on the uncurried translation to target calculus with continuations represented as explicit stacks. We start by presenting core data structures, and afterwards move to actual translation details. Development of the former Appel’s version is now suspended.

### 6.1 Abstract Syntax Tree

The language’s AST is defined without surprises, just as syntax is:

```
data Value
  = VVar Var
  | VNum Integer
  | VStr String
  | VLambda Var ValueType Comp
  | VFix Var Var Comp
  | VUnit
  | VPair Value Value
  | VRecordRow (RecordRow Value)
  | VExtendRow Label Value Value
  | VVariantRow (VariantRow Value)
  | VBinOp BinaryOp Value Value

data Comp
  = EVal Value
  | ELet Var Comp Comp
  | EApp Value Value
```

```

| ESplit Label Var Var Value Comp
| ECase Value Label Var Comp Var Comp
| EReturn Value
| EAbsurd Value
| EIf Value Comp Comp
-- Algebraic effects
| EOp Label Value
| EHandle Comp Handler
-- Coalgebraic effects
| ECoop Label Value
| ECohandle Comp Handler

```

Similarly for the target calculus data structure. However, as one may notice, for convenience the **let** translation is homomorphic, as opposed to be to lambda abstracted with immediate application:

```

data UValue
  = UVar Var
  | UNum Integer
  | UStr String
  | UBool Bool
  | ULambda Var UComp
  | UUnit
  | UPair UValue UValue
  | ULabel Label
  | URec Var Var UComp
  | UBinOp BinaryOp UValue UValue

data UComp
  = UVal UValue
  | UApp UComp UComp
  | USplit Label Var Var UValue UComp
  | UCase UValue Label UComp Var UComp
  | UIf UValue UComp UComp
  | ULet Var UComp UComp
  | UAbsurd UValue
  | UTopLevelEffect Label UValue

```

The final answer, common to both evaluations, is represented as a **DValue**, where the meaning of the coproduct is as one would expect:

```

type Label = String

```

```

type FuncRecord = [DValue] -> Either Error DValue

data DValue
  = DNum Integer
  | DStr String
  | DLambda FuncRecord
  | DUnit
  | DPair DValue DValue
  | DLabel Label

```

Evaluation of target calculus is typical to call-by-value with syntactic distinction between values and computations. For more details, refer to [16]. That being said, there is one part that requires more attention, namely, `UTopLevelEffect Label UValue`, which represents an unhandled algebraic effect along with its parameter. Even in case language has coalgebraic effects, special treatment is required for doing IO. For that reason, we define default handling for a few effects for printing to console and handling files, where semantic is just as one would expect from naming. We abuse haskell's notation to define types for algebraic effects living in Freak language:

```

type Filename = String
Print :: String -> ()
ReadLine :: () -> String
ReadFile :: Filename -> String
WriteFile :: (Filename, String) -> ()
AppendFile :: (Filename, String) -> ()

```

## 6.2 Curried translation

The first take was heavily inspired by A. Appel's Compiling with Continuations [3], which provides a translation for a simplified ML calculus. The calculus was extended and translation adapted to handle algebraic effects and their handlers. The translation is based on the curried first-order translation. That being said, the source code diverged a lot from the paper on which it was based, leading to a different transformation for which the correctness and cohesion with operational semantics should be proved separately. Indeed, while the interpreter worked well on the use cases defined in tests, the evaluation had a part which was not tail-recursive. What's more, nested handlers were not supported, and the implementation was found to be trickier than it should, as it was not obvious on how to adopt the technique proposed in the paper.

In terms of improving the performance of the evaluation, uncurried higher-order translation should be adapted, so that administrative redexes are contracted

and proper tail-recursion is obtained. The core data structure, into which the source program is transformed, is defined as follows:

```
data ContComp
  = CPSApp CValue [CValue]
  | CPSResume CValue ContComp
  | CPSFix Var [Var] ContComp ContComp
  | CPSBinOp BinaryOp CValue CValue Var ContComp
  | CPSValue CValue
  | CPSLet Var CValue ContComp
  | CPSSplit Label Var Var CValue ContComp
  | CPSCase CValue Label Var ContComp Var ContComp
  | CPSIf CValue ContComp ContComp
  | CPSAbsurd CValue
```

Most of the terms at the end have a coinductive reference to itself, which represents the rest of the computation that needs to be done. For more clarification, one may take a look into the book mentioned above [3]. The source code for curried translation and evaluation can be found respectively in `CPSAppel.hs` and `EvalCPS.hs`. Development of this version of translation is discontinued.

### 6.3 Uncurried translation

Having in mind the drawbacks mentioned above, alternative translation was written, that coincides with the translation from [16]. Namely, with the uncurried translation to target calculus with continuations represented as explicit stacks. The target calculus was described in Section 6.1. The continuations are represented as `Cont`, with syntactic distinction between pure, effectful and coeffectful computations. Pure and (co)effectful continuations occupy alternating positions in the stack. Explicit distinction was made to provide more control in the source code.

```
type CPSMonad a = ExceptT Error (StateT Int IO) a

type ContF = UValue -> [Cont] -> CPSMonad UComp

data Cont = Pure ContF
          | Eff ContF
          | Coeff ContF
```

Where `CPSMonad` is a monad transformer over `Either`, `State` and `IO`. `State` is required to generate labels for fresh variables that came from the translation, `Either`

for handling exceptions that may occur during translations, and `IO` for handling input output of the source language.

```

initialPureCont :: ContF
initialPureCont v ks = (return . UVal) v

initialEffCont :: ContF
initialEffCont (UPair (ULabel effLabel) (UPair p r)) ks =
    return . UApp (UVal r) $ UTopLevelEffect effLabel p

initialContStack :: [Cont]
initialContStack = [Pure initialPureCont, Eff initialEffCont]

```

Initial pure continuation is lifting values into computations, and effectful one is propagating previously mentioned `UTopLevelEffect`. Notice that `initialContStack` does not have initial cohandler, as handling of default coeffects is embed in evaluator. The core code is split into a few functions:

```

cps      :: Comp    -> [Cont] -> CPSMonad UComp
cpsVal   :: Value   -> [Cont] -> CPSMonad UValue
cpsOp    :: Label -> Value -> [Cont] -> CPSMonad UComp
cpsHRet  :: Handler -> Cont
cpsHOps  :: (ContF -> Cont) -> Handler -> Cont
forward  :: Label   -> UValue -> UValue -> [Cont] -> CPSMonad UComp
runCPS   :: Comp -> EvalResMonad UComp

```

Where the first two are implementing `cps` for computations and values. `cpsOp` is doing translation for an (co)effect that occurred in program, `cpsHRet` and `cpsHOps` are yielding pure and effectful continuations, based on a given handler. `forward` is responsible for forwarding the computation to the outer handler, and the last one for running the translation, where evaluation result is represented by `type EvalResMonad a = IO (Either Error a)`. This results in an implementation that finally supports nested handlers, which can be seen by running tests. Links language [16] also supports shallow handlers [15], whereas our language implements only deep ones.

## 6.4 Cohandlers

...

## 6.5 Source Code Structure

The source code is divided into a number of modules, where the most crucial parts have already been described.

AST.hs	- AST data structures
CommonCPS.hs	- Common functions for CPS translation
CommonEval.hs	- Common functions for evaluation
CPSLists.hs	- Uncurried CPS translation
EvalTarget.hs	- Evaluation of the target calculus
Freak.hs	- API for the language
Main.hs	- Main module running evaluator on given filename
Parser.hs	- Parser and lexer
TargetAST.hs	- AST for the target calculus
Tests.hs	- Tests module
Types.hs	- Common types definition
programs/	- Exemplary programs covered in tests
CPSAppel.hs	- [deprecated] Appel-based CPS translation
EvalCPS.hs	- [deprecated] Evaluation of the Appel's CPS structure



## Chapter 7

# Conclusion

### 7.1 Summary

TODO What was achieved, what was described, what needs to be done or researched.

### 7.2 Future work

#### 7.2.1 Abstract machine

The Links language, on which CPS translation Freak was based, also provides small-step operational semantics [17] and an abstract machine [14]. Implementing another way of evaluation could serve as a way to empirically assert correctness, as opposed to formally. Abstract machine would need to be extended to incorporate coeffects.

#### 7.2.2 Type inference and row polymorphism

The type system as of this day is not implemented, as the focus has been put on CPS transformation and dynamics of the calculus with effects and coeffects. Further work is required here, especially considering the fact that a huge advantage of algebraic effects is that they are explicitly defined in the type of a computation.

#### 7.2.3 Multiple instances of algebraic effects

The Freak language is limited to a single instance of an effect. We would need to support cases where many instances of the algebraic effects, with the same handler code, could be instantiated. The current state of the art introduces a concept of resources and instances, as in Eff [6], or instance variables, as in Helium [7]. Another part is to research on how this area combines with coalgebraic part.

#### 7.2.4 Selective CPS

Other languages, like Koka [24], or even the core of the Links, are performing selective CPS translation, which reduces the overhead on code that does not perform algebraic effects. Our current translation is fully embedded in CPS transformation.

#### 7.2.5 Exceptions and signals

Exceptions are a trivial example of algebraic effect where the resumption is discarded, and as described in §4.5 [17], they can be modeled as a separate construct to improve performance.

#### 7.2.6 Shallow handlers

Shallow and deep handlers while being able to simulate each other up to administrative reductions, have a very different meaning from a theoretical point of view. Implementing them as defined by Lindley et al. [15] could be another way of enhancing Freak.

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