

# Assignment Project Exam Help

COMP9141

Software System Design and Implementation

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Effects and State

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## Effects

### Effects

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

#### Example (Memory effects)

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

#### Example (IO)

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

#### Example (Non-termination)

```
// infinite loop  
while (1) {};
```

#### Example (Control flow)

```
// exception effect  
throw new Exception();
```

## Internal vs. External Effects

### External Observability

An *external* effect is an effect that is *observable* outside the function.

*Internal* effects are not observable from outside.

### Example (External effects)

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

Are memory effects *external* or *internal*?

**Answer:** Depends on the scope of the memory being accessed. Global variable accesses are *external*.

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## Purity

A function with no external effects is called a *pure* function.

### Pure functions

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

Consequences:

- Two invocations with the same arguments result in the same value.
- No observable trace is left beyond the result of the function.
- No implicit notion of time or order of execution.

**Question:** Are Haskell functions *pure*?

## Haskell Functions

Haskell functions are technically **not** pure.

- They can loop infinitely.
- They can throw exceptions (**partial functions**).
- They can force evaluation of unevaluated expressions.

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### Caveat

Purity only applies to a particular level of abstraction. Even ignoring the above, assembly instructions produced by GHC aren't really pure.

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Despite the impurity of Haskell functions, we can often reason as though they are pure. Hence we call Haskell a **purely functional** language.

## The Danger of Implicit Side Effects

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- They introduce (often subtle) requirements on the evaluation order.
- They are not visible from the type signature of the function.
- They introduce *non-local* dependencies which is bad for software design, increasing *coupling*.
- They interfere badly with strong typing, for example mutable arrays in Java, or reference types in ML.

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

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## Can we program with pure functions?

Yes! We've been doing it for the past 6 weeks.

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

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 $s \rightarrow (s, a)$

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

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### Efficiency?

All that copying might seem expensive, but by using tree data structures, we can usually reduce the cost to an  $\mathcal{O}(\log n)$  overhead.

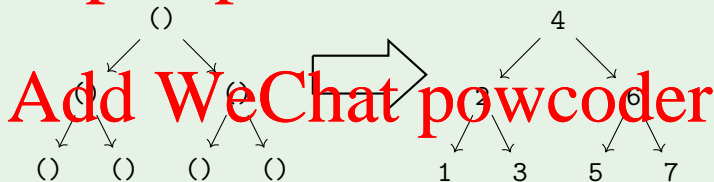
## State Passing

### Example (Labelling Nodes)

```
data Tree a = Branch a (Tree a) (Tree a) | Leaf
```

Given a tree, label each node with an ascending number in infix order:

```
label :: Tree () -> Tree Int
```



Let's use a **data type** to simplify this!



## State

`newtype State s a = A` **procedure** that, manipulating some state of type `s`, returns a

### State Operations

```
get :: State s s
put :: s -> State s ()
pure :: a -> State s a
evalState :: State s a -> s -> a
```

### Sequential Composition

Do one state action after another with `do` blocks:

```
do put 42
  pure True
  desugars to
put 42 >> put True
```

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

### Example

Implement `modify`:

```
(s -> s) -> State s ()
```

And re-do the tree labelling.

### Bind

The 2nd step can depend on the first with `bind`:

```
do x <- get
  pure (x+1)
  desugars to
get >>= \x -> pure (x + 1)
```

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

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## State Implementation

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The State type is essentially implemented as the same state passing we did before!

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

### Example

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Let's implement each of the State operations for this newtype.

### Caution

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

## Effects

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Sometimes we need side effects.

- We need to perform I/O, to communicate with the user or hardware.
- We might need effects for maximum efficiency.  
(but usually internal effects are sufficient)

### Haskell's approach

Pure by default. Effectful when necessary.

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## The IO Type

A **procedure** that performs some side effects, returning a result of type `a` is written as `IO a`

World interpretation

`IO a` is an abstract type. But we can think of it as a function:

`RealWorld -> (RealWorld, a)`  
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(that's how it's implemented in GHC)

```
(>>=) :: IO a -> (a -> IO b) -> IO b
pure  :: a -> IO a
```

```
getChar :: IO Char
readLine :: IO String
putStrLn :: String -> IO ()
```

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## Infectious IO

We can convert pure values to impure procedures with `pure`:

```
pure :: a -> IO a
```

But we can't convert impure procedures to pure values:

```
???? :: IO a -> a
```

The only function that gets an `a` from an `IO a` is `>>=`:

```
(>>=) :: IO a -> (a -> IO b) -> IO b
```

But it returns an `IO` procedure as well.

### Conclusion

The moment you use an `IO` procedure in a function, `IO` shows up in the types, and you can't get rid of it!

If a function makes use of `IO` effects directly or indirectly, it will have `IO` in its type!

## Haskell Design Strategy

We ultimately “run” IO procedures by calling them from main:

```
main :: IO ()
```

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Pure Logic

Encapsulated  
Internal State

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IO Shell

## Examples

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### Example (Triangles)

Given an input number  $n$ , print a triangle of  $*$  characters of base width  $n$ .

### Example (Maze Game)

Design a game that reads in a  $n \times n$  maze from a file. The player starts at position  $(0, 0)$  and must reach position  $(n-1, n-1)$  to win. The game accepts keyboard input to move the player around the maze.

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## Benefits of an IO Type

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- Absence of effects makes type system more informative:
  - A type signature captures **entire interface** of the function.
  - All **dependencies are explicit** in the form of data dependencies.
  - All **dependencies are typed**.
- It is easier to reason about pure code and it is easier to test:
  - Testing is local, doesn't require complex set-up and tear-down.
  - Reasoning is local, doesn't require state invariants.
  - Type checking leads to strong guarantees.

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## Mutable Variables

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We can have honest-to-goodness mutability in Haskell, if we really need it, using `IORef`.

```
data IORef a
newIORef :: a -> IO (IORef a)
readIORef :: IORef a -> IO a
writeIORef :: IORef a -> a -> IO ()
```

**Example (Effectful Average)**

Average a list of numbers using `IORefs`.

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## Mutable Variables, Locally

Something like averaging a list of numbers doesn't require external effects, even if we use mutation internally.

```
data STRef s a
newSTRef :: a -> ST (STRef s a)
readSTRef :: STRef s a -> ST s a
writeSTRef :: STRef s a -> a -> ST s ()
runST :: (forall s. ST s a) -> a
```

The extra `s` parameter is called a **state thread**, that ensures that mutable variables don't leak outside of the `ST` computation.

### Note

The `ST` type is not assessable in this course, but it is useful sometimes in Haskell programming.

## QuickChecking Effects

QuickCheck lets us test IO (and ST) using this special **property monad** interface:

```
monadicIO :: PropertyM IO () -> Property
pre       :: Bool -> PropertyM IO ()
assert    :: Bool -> PropertyM IO ()
run       :: IO a -> PropertyM IO a
```

Do notation and similar can be used for PropertyM IO procedures just as with State s and IO procedures.

### Example (Testing average)

Let's test that our IO average function works like the non-effectful one.

### Example (Testing gfactor)

Let's test that the GNU factor program works correctly!

## Homework

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- ① New exercise out, due the week **after** next week.
- ② Last week's quiz is due on **Friday**.
- ③ This week's quiz is due the **Friday after** the following Friday.

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