

CMSC 330: Organization of Programming Languages

OCaml Imperative Programming

So Far, Only Functional Programming

- We haven't given you **any** way so far to change something in memory
 - All you can do is create new values from old
- This makes programming easier since it supports mathematical (i.e., **functional**) reasoning
 - Don't care whether data is shared in memory
 - Aliasing is irrelevant
 - Calling a function f with argument x always produces the same result
 - For all x and y : $f\ x = f\ y$ when $x = y$

Imperative OCaml

- Sometimes it is useful for values to change
 - Call a function that returns an *incremented* counter
 - Store aggregations in *efficient* hash tables
- OCaml **variables** are *immutable*, but
- OCaml has **references**, **fields**, and **arrays** that are actually *mutable*
 - I.e., they can **change**

References

- **'a ref**: Pointer to a mutable value of type **'a**
- There are three basic operations on references:
 - ref** : **'a -> 'a ref**
 - Allocate a reference
 - !** : **'a ref -> 'a**
 - Read the value stored in reference
 - :=** : **'a ref -> 'a -> unit**
 - Change the value stored in reference
- Binding variable **x** to a reference is **immutable**
 - The **contents of the reference** **x** points to may change

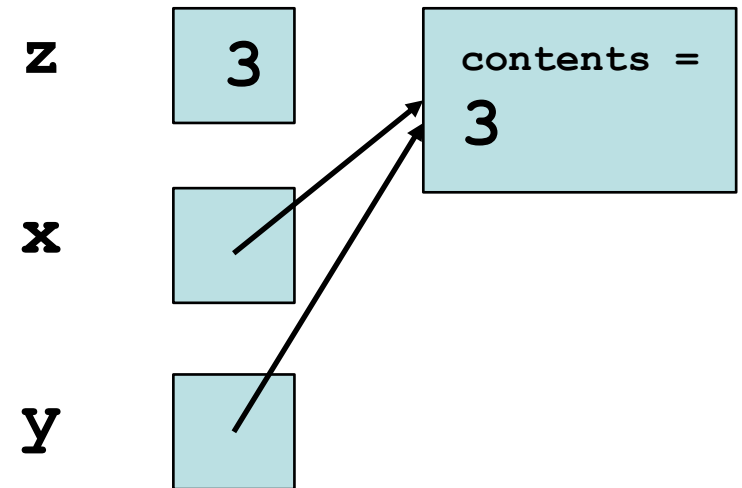
References Usage

Example:

```
# let z = 3;;  
val z : int = 3
```

```
# let x = ref z;;  
val x : int ref = {contents = 3}
```

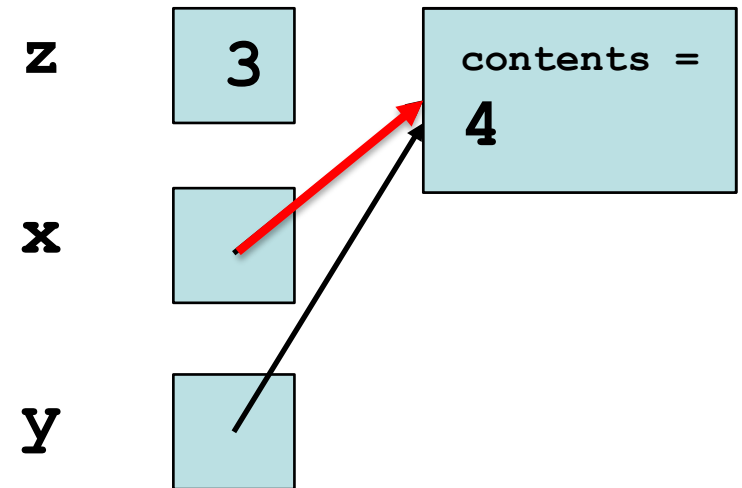
```
# let y = x;;  
val y : int ref = {contents = 3}
```



References Usage

Example:

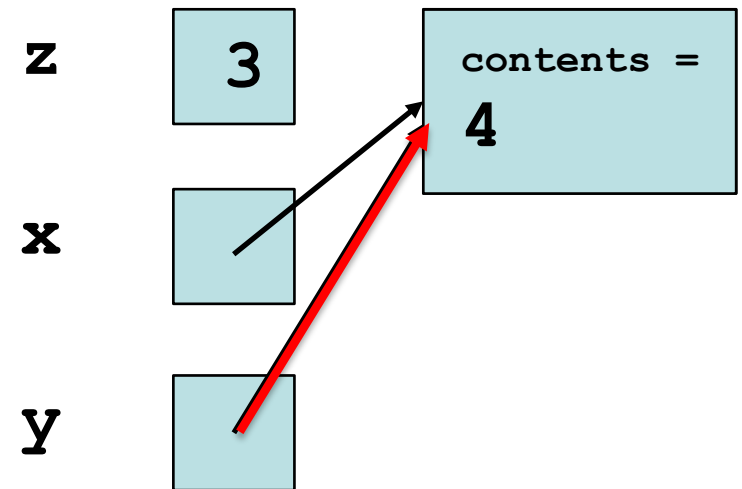
```
# let z = 3;;  
val z : int = 3  
  
# let x = ref z;;  
val x : int ref = {contents = 3}  
  
# let y = x;;  
val y : int ref = {contents = 3}  
  
# x := 4;;  
- : unit = ()
```



References Usage

Example:

```
# let z = 3;;  
val z : int = 3  
  
# let x = ref z;;  
val x : int ref = {contents = 3}  
  
# let y = x;;  
val y : int ref = {contents = 3}  
  
# x := 4;;  
- : unit = ()  
  
# !y;;  
- : int = 4
```



Aliasing

- Reconsider our example

```
let z = 3;;  
let x = ref z;;  
let y = x;;  
x := 4;;  
!y;;
```

- Here, variables **y** and **x** are **aliases**:
 - In **let y = x**, variable **x** evaluates to a location, and **y** is bound to the **same location**
 - So, changing the contents of that location will cause both **!x** and **!y** to change

Quiz 1: What is the value **w**?

```
let x = ref 12 in
let y = ref 13 in
let z = y in
let _ = y := 4 in
let w = !y + !z in
```

w

- A. 25
- B. 8
- C. 17
- D. 16

Quiz 1: What is the value **w**?

```
let x = ref 12 in
let y = ref 13 in
let z = y in
let _ = y := 4 in
let w = !y + !z in
```

w

A. 25

B. 8

C. 17

D. 16

Quiz 1a: What is the value **w**?

```
let x = ref 12 in
let y = ref 13 in
let z = !y in
let _ = y := 4 in
let w = !y + z in
```

w

- A. 25
- B. 8
- C. 17
- D. 16

Quiz 1a: What is the value w ?

```
let x = ref 12 in
let y = ref 13 in
let z = !y in
let _ = y := 4 in
let w = !y + z in
```

w

- A. 25
- B. 8
- C. 17
- D. 16

References: Syntax and Semantics

- Syntax: **ref** *e*
- Evaluation
 - Evaluate *e* to a value *v*
 - Allocate a new location *loc* in memory to hold *v*
 - Store *v* in contents of memory at *loc*
 - Return *loc*
 - Note: locations are first-class values
- Type checking
 - **(ref *e*) : *t* ref**
 - if *e* : *t*

References: Syntax and Semantics

- Syntax: $e1 := e2$
- Evaluation
 - Evaluate $e2$ to a value $v2$
 - Evaluate $e1$ to a location loc
 - Store $v2$ in contents of memory at loc
 - Return $()$
- Type checking
 - $(e1 := e2) : \text{unit}$
 - if $e1 : t \text{ ref}$ and $e2 : t$

References: Syntax and Semantics

- Syntax: $!e$
 - *This is not negation. Operator $!$ is like operator $*$ in C*
- Evaluation
 - Evaluate e to a location loc
 - Return contents v of memory at loc
- Type checking
 - $!e : t$
 - if $e : t \text{ ref}$

Sequences: Syntax and Semantics

- Syntax: $e1; e2$
 - $e1; e2$ is the same as `let () = $e1$ in $e2$`
- Evaluation
 - Evaluate $e1$ to a value $v1$
 - Evaluate $e2$ to a value $v2$
 - Return $v2$
 - We throw away $v1$ – so $e1$ is useful only if it has *effects*, e.g., if it changes a reference's contents or accesses a file
- Type checking
 - $e1; e2 : t$
 - if $e1 : \text{unit}$ and $e2 : t$

:: versus ;

- :: ends an expression in the top-level of OCaml
 - Use it to say: “Give me the value of this expression”
 - Not used in the body of a function
 - Not needed after each function definition
 - Though for now it won’t hurt if used there
- *e1*; *e2* evaluates *e1* and then *e2*, and returns *e2*

```
let print_both (s, t) = print_string s; print_string t;  
                        "Printed s and t"
```

- notice no ; at end – it’s a **separator**, not a **terminator**

```
print_both ("Colorless green ", "ideas sleep")
```

Prints "Colorless green ideas sleep", and returns

```
"Printed s and t"
```

Grouping Sequences

- If you're not sure about the scoping rules, use **begin...end**, or *parentheses*, to group together statements with semicolons

```
let x = ref 0
let f () =
  begin
    print_string "hello";
    x := !x + 1
  end
```

```
let x = ref 0
let f () =
  (
    print_string "hello";
    x := !x + 1
  )
```

Implement a Counter

```
# let counter = ref 0 ;;
val counter : int ref = { contents=0 }

# let next =
    fun () ->
        counter := !counter + 1; !counter ;;
val next : unit -> int = <fun>

# next ();;
- : int = 1

# next ();;
- : int = 2
```

Hide the Reference

```
# let counter = ref 0 ;;
# let next =
    fun () ->
        counter := !counter + 1; !counter ;;
val next : unit -> int = <fun>

# next ();;
- : int = 1

# next ();;
- : int = 2
```

Hide the Reference, Visualized

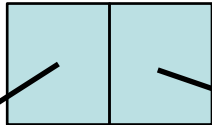
```
let next =  
  let ctr = ref 0 in  
    fun () ->  
      ctr := !ctr + 1; !ctr
```



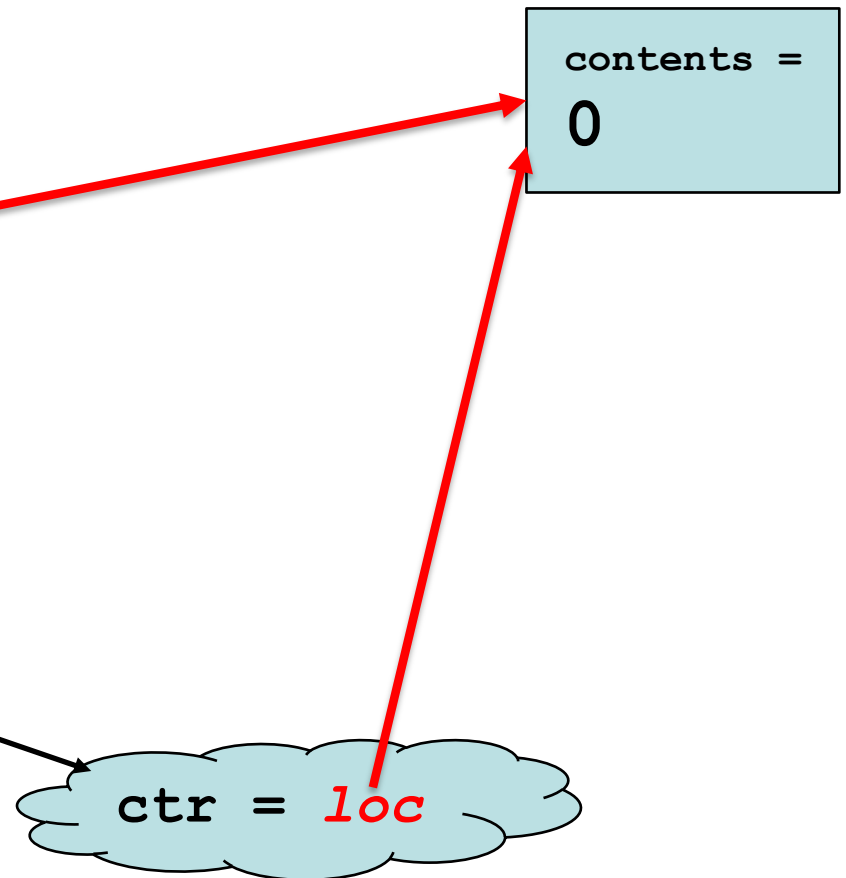
```
let next =  
  let ctr = loc in  
    fun () ->  
      ctr := !ctr + 1; !ctr
```



```
let next =
```



```
fun () ->  
  ctr := !ctr + 1; !ctr
```



Quiz 2: What is wrong with the counter?

```
let next =  
  fun () ->  
    let counter = ref 0 in  
      counter := !counter + 1;  
      !counter
```

- A. Nothing is wrong
- B. It returns a boolean, not an integer
- C. It returns a reference to an integer instead of an integer
- D. It returns the same integer every time

Quiz 2: What is wrong with the counter?

```
let next =  
  fun () ->  
    let counter = ref 0 in  
    counter := !counter + 1;  
    !counter
```

- A. Nothing is wrong
- B. It returns a boolean, not an integer
- C. It returns a reference to an integer instead of an integer
- D. It returns the same integer every time

The Trade-Off Of Side Effects

- Side effects are absolutely necessary
 - That's usually why we run software! We want something to happen that we can observe
- They also make reasoning harder
 - Order of evaluation now matters
 - No referential transparency
 - Calling the same function with the same arguments may produce different results
 - Aliasing may result in hard-to-understand bugs
 - If we call a function with refs **r1** and **r2**, it might do strange things if **r1** and **r2** are aliased

Order of Evaluation

- Consider this example

```
let y = ref 1;;
```

```
let f _ z = z+1;;  (* ignores first arg *)
```

```
let w = f (y:=2) !y;;
```

```
w;;
```

- The **first argument** to the call to **f** is the result of the assignment expression **y:=2**, which is unit **()**
- The **second argument** is the current contents of reference **y**
- What is **w** if **f**'s arguments are evaluated **left to right**?
 - 3**
- What if they are evaluated **right to left**?
 - 2**

OCaml Order of Evaluation

- In OCaml, the **order of evaluation** is **unspecified**
 - This means that the language doesn't take a stand, and different implementations may do different things
- On my Mac, OCaml evaluates **right to left**
 - True for the bytecode interpreter and x86 native code
 - Run the previous example and see for yourself!
- Strive to make your programs **produce the same answer regardless of evaluation order**

Quiz 3: Will **w**'s value differ

If evaluation order is left to right, rather than right to left?

```
let y      = ref 1 in
```

```
let f z = z := !z+1; !z in
```

```
let w      = (f y) + !y in
```

w

- A. True
 - B. False

Quiz 3: Will **w**'s value differ

If evaluation order is left to right, rather than right to left?

```
let y      = ref 1 in
```

```
let f z = z := !z+1; !z in
```

```
let w      = (f y) + !y in
```

w

- A. True

B. False

Quiz 4: Will **w**'s value differ

If evaluation order is left to right, rather than right to left?

```
let y      = ref 1 in
```

```
let f z = z := !z+1; !z in
```

```
let w      = (f y) + (f y) in
```

w

- A. True
 - B. False

Quiz 4: Will **w**'s value differ

If evaluation order is left to right, rather than right to left?

```
let y      = ref 1 in
```

```
let f z = z := !z+1; !z in
```

```
let w      = (f y) + (f y) in
```

w

A. True

B. False

Quiz 5: Which f is **not** referentially transparent?

I.e., not the case that $f\ x = f\ y$ for all $x = y$

A. `let f z =
 let y = ref z in
 y := !y + z;
 !y`

B. `let f =
 let y = ref 0 in
 fun z ->
 y := !y + z; !y`

C. `let f z =
 let y = z in
 y+z`

D. `let f z = z+1`

Quiz 5: Which f is **not** referentially transparent?

I.e., not the case that $f\ x = f\ y$ for all $x = y$

A. `let f z =
 let y = ref z in
 y := !y + z;
 !y`

B. `let f =
 let y = ref 0 in
 fun z ->
 y := !y + z; !y`

C. `let f z =
 let y = z in
 y+z`

D. `let f z = z+1`

This is basically the **counter** function

Structural vs. Physical Equality

- The `=` operator compares objects structurally
 - `[1;2;3] = [1;2;3]` (* true *)
 - `(1,2) = (1,2)` (* true *)
 - The `=` operator is used for pattern matching
 - The `<>` operator is the negation of structural equality
- The `==` operator compares objects physically
 - `[1;2;3] == [1;2;3]` (* false *)
 - The `!=` operator is the negation of physical equality
- Mostly you want to use structural equality
 - But it's a problem with cyclic data structures

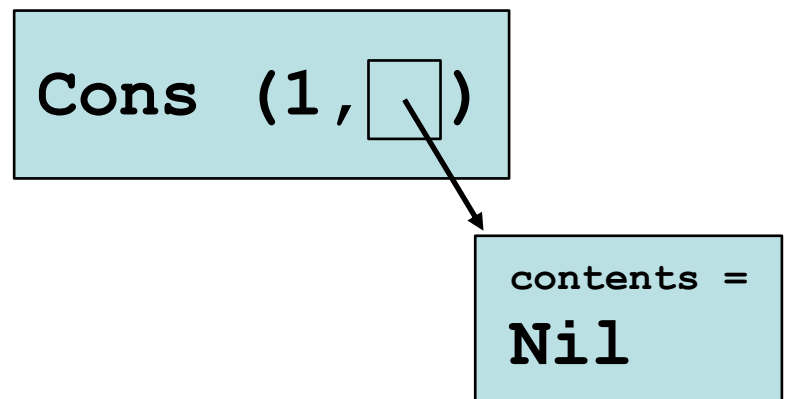
Cyclic Data Structures Possible With Ref

```
type 'a rlist =  
  Nil | Cons of 'a * ('a rlist ref);;  
  
let newcell x y = Cons(x, ref y);;  
  
let updnnext (Cons (_, r)) y = r := y;;
```

```
# let x = newcell 1 Nil;;
```

```
val x : int rlist = Cons (1, {contents = Nil})
```

x



Cyclic Data Structures Possible With Ref

```
type 'a rlist =  
  Nil | Cons of 'a * ('a rlist ref);;  
  
let newcell x y = Cons(x, ref y);;  
  
let updnext (Cons (_,r)) y = r := y;;
```

```
# let x = newcell 1 Nil;;
```

```
val x : int rlist = Cons (1, {contents = Nil})
```

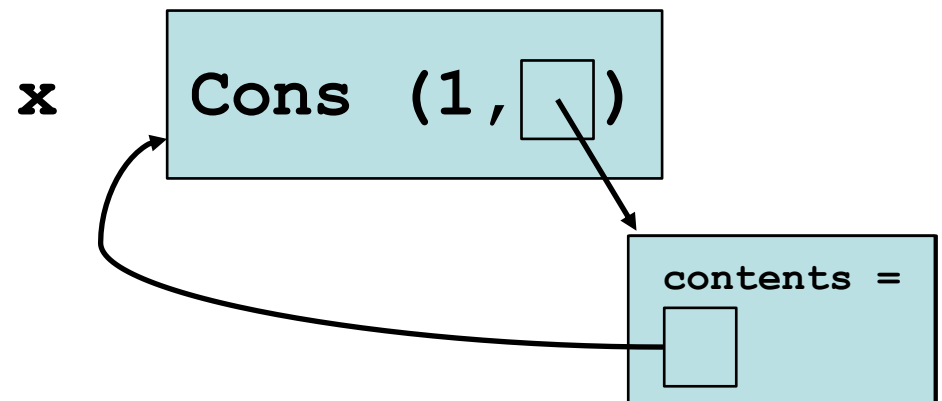
```
# updnext x x;;
```

```
- : unit = ()
```

```
# x == x;;
```

```
- : bool = true
```

```
# x = x;; (* hangs *)
```



Equality of `refs` themselves

- Refs are compared **structurally** by their **contents**, **physically** by their **addresses**
 - `ref 1 = ref 1` (* true *)
 - `ref 1 <> ref 2` (* true *)
 - `ref 1 != ref 1` (* true *)
 - `let x = ref 1 in x == x` (* true *)

Mutable fields

- Fields of a record type can be declared as mutable:

```
# type point = {x:int; y:int; mutable c:string};;
type point = { x : int; y : int; mutable c : string; }

# let p = {x=0; y=0; c="red"};;
val p : point = {x = 0; y = 0; c = "red"}

# p.c <- "white";;
- : unit = ()

# p;;
val p : point = {x = 0; y = 0; c = "white"}

# p.x <- 3;;
Error: The record field x is not mutable
```

Implementing Refs

- Ref cells are essentially syntactic sugar:

```
type 'a ref = { mutable contents: 'a }  
let ref x = { contents = x }  
let (!) r = r.contents  
let (:=) r newval = r.contents <- newval
```

- ref type is declared in **Pervasives**
- ref functions are compiled to equivalents of above

Arrays

- **Arrays** generalize ref cells from a single mutable value to a sequence of mutable values

```
# let v = [|0.; 1.|];;  
val v : float array = [|0.; 1.|]  
  
# v.(0) <- 5.;;  
- : unit = ()  
  
# v;;  
- : float array = [|5.; 1.|]
```

Arrays

- Syntax: $[| e1; \dots; en |]$
- Evaluation
 - Evaluates to an n -element array, whose elements are initialized to $v1 \dots vn$, where $e1$ evaluates to $v1$, ..., en evaluates to vn
 - Evaluates them *right to left*
- Type checking
 - $[| e1; \dots; en |] : t \text{ array}$
 - If for all i , each $ei : t$

Arrays

- Syntax: $e1 . (e2)$
- Evaluation
 - Evaluate $e2$ to integer value $v2$
 - Evaluate $e1$ to array value $v1$
 - If $0 \leq v2 < n$, where n is the length of array $v1$, then return element at offset $v2$ of $v1$
 - Else raise `Invalid_argument` exception
- Type checking: $e1 . (e2) : t$
 - if $e1 : t \text{ array}$ and $e2 : \text{int}$

Arrays

- Syntax: $e1 . (e2) \leftarrow e3$
- Evaluation
 - Evaluate $e3$ to $v3$
 - Evaluate $e2$ to integer value $v2$
 - Evaluate $e1$ to array value $v1$
 - If $0 \leq v2 < n$, where n is the length of array $v1$, then update element at offset $v2$ of $v1$ to $v3$
 - Else raise `Invalid_argument` exception
 - Return ()
- Type checking: $e1 . (e2) \leftarrow e3 : \text{unit}$
 - if $e1 : t \text{ array}$ and $e2 : \text{int}$ and $e3 : t$

Quiz 6: What is the value **w**?

```
let x = [| 0; 1 |] in
```

```
let w = x in
```

```
x.(0) <- 1;
```

w

- A. 1
- B. [| 0; 1 |]
- C. Type Error
- D. [| 1; 1 |]

Quiz 6: What is the value **w**?

```
let x = [| 0; 1 |] in
```

```
let w = x in
```

```
x.(0) <- 1;
```

w

- A. 1
- B. [| 0; 1 |]
- C. Type Error
- D. [| 1; 1 |]

Control structures

- Traditional loop structures are useful with imperative features:

`while e1 do e2 done`

`for x=e1 to e2 do e3 done`

`for x=e1 downto e2 do e3 done`

Comparison To OCaml

```
int x; C  
int y;
```

```
x = 3;
```

```
y = x;
```

```
3 = x;
```

```
let x = ref 0;;  
let y = ref 0;;
```

OCaml

```
x := 3;; (* x : int ref *)
```

```
y := (!x) ;;
```

```
3 := x;; (* 3 : int; error *)
```

- In OCaml, an updatable location and the contents of the location have **different** types
 - The location has a **ref** type

OCaml Language Choices

- Implicit or explicit declarations?
 - **Explicit** – variables must be introduced with **let** before use
 - But you don't need to specify types
- Static or dynamic types?
 - **Static** – but you don't need to write down types
 - OCaml uses **type inference** to figure out types for you
 - Good: less work to write programs
 - Bad: easier to make mistakes, harder to find errors

OCaml Programming Tips

- Compile your program often, after small changes
 - The OCaml parser often produces inscrutable error messages
 - It's easier to figure out what's wrong if you've only changed a few things since the last compile
- If you're getting strange type error messages, add in type declarations
 - Try writing down types of arguments
 - For any expression `e`, can write `(e:t)` to assert `e` has type `t`

OCaml Programming Tips (cont.)

- Watch out for precedence and function application

```
let mult x y = x*y
```

```
mult 2 2+3      (* returns 7 *)  
                (* parsed as (mult 2 2)+3 *)
```

```
mult 2 (2+3)    (* returns 10 *)
```

OCaml Programming Tips (cont.)

- All branches of a pattern match must return the same type

```
match x with
... -> -1      (* branch returns int *)
| ... -> ()    (* uh-oh, branch returns unit *)
| ... -> print_string "foo"
                (* also returns unit *)
```

OCaml Programming Tips (cont.)

- You cannot assign to ordinary variables!

```
# let x = 42;;  
val x : int = 42  
# x = x + 1;;          (* this is a comparison *)  
-: bool = false  
# x := 3;;  
Error: This expression has type int but is here  
used with type 'a ref
```

OCaml Programming Tips (cont.)

- Again: You cannot assign to ordinary variables!

```
# let x = 42;;  
val x : int = 42  
# let f y = y + x;;      (* captures x = 42 *)  
val f : int -> int = <fun>  
# let x = 0;;           (* shadows binding of x *)  
val x : int = 0  
# f 10;;                (* but f still refers to x=42 *)  
- : int = 52
```