

# CMSC 330: Organization of Programming Languages

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## OCaml Imperative Programming

# So Far, Only Functional Programming

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- 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  **$y$** , we have  $f\ x = f\ y$  when  $x = y$

# Imperative OCaml

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- 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

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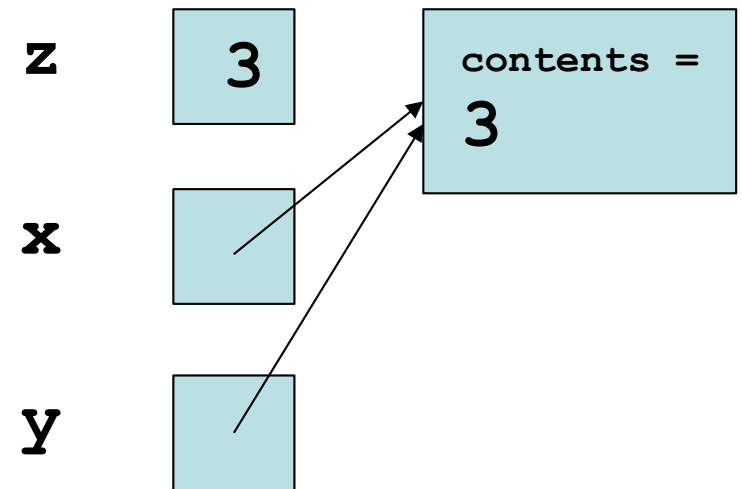
- **'a ref**: Pointer to a mutable value of type **'a**
- There are three basic operations on references:
  - ref** : **'a -> 'a ref**
    - Allocate a reference
  - !** : **'a ref -> 'a**
    - Read the value stored in reference
  - :=** : **'a ref -> 'a -> unit**
    - Change the value stored in reference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

# References Usage

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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}
```

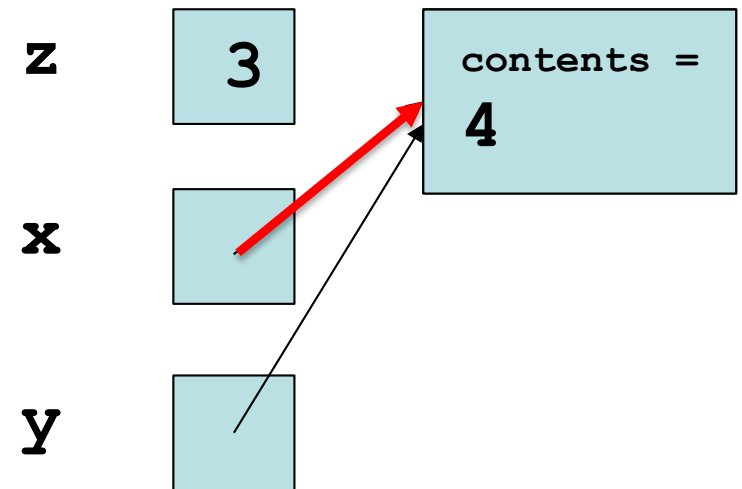


# References Usage

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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 = ()
```

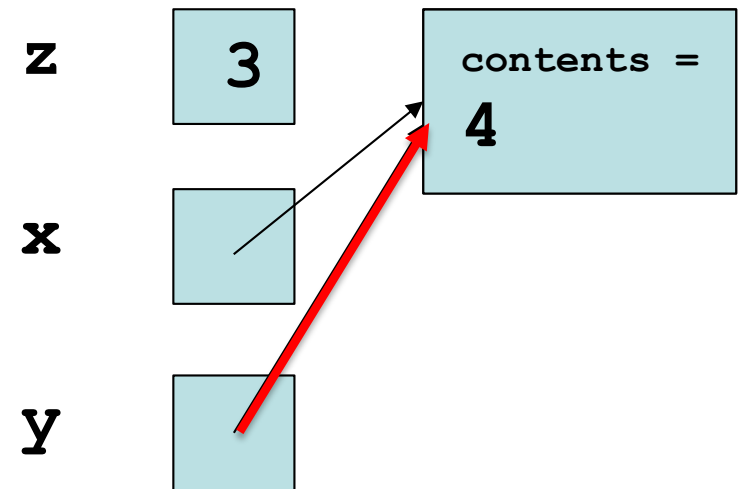


# References Usage

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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* (which is itself a value)
- 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  $e : t$  **ref**

# Sequences: Syntax and Semantics

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- 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  $v2$ 
    - Throws away  $v1$  – so  $e1$  is useful only if it has *side effects*, e.g., if it modifies 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
```



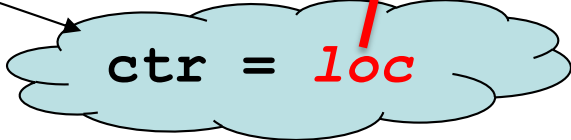
```
let next =
```




a closure



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



```
ctr = loc
```



```
contents =  
0
```

## Quiz 2: What is wrong with the counter?

---

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

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

## Quiz 2: What is wrong with the counter?

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let next =  
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    !counter
```

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

# 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 aliases

# 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) + (f 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) + (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) + !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) + !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
  - The `<>` operator is the negation of structural equality
- The `==` operator compares objects physically
  - The `!=` operator is the negation of physical equality
- Examples
  - `([1;2;3] = [1;2;3]) = true`   `([1;2;3] <> [1;2;3]) = false`
  - `([1;2;3] == [1;2;3]) = false`   `([1;2;3] != [1;2;3]) = true`
- Mostly you want to use `=` and `<>`
  - E.g., the `=` operator is used for pattern matching
- But `=` is a problem with **cyclic data structures**

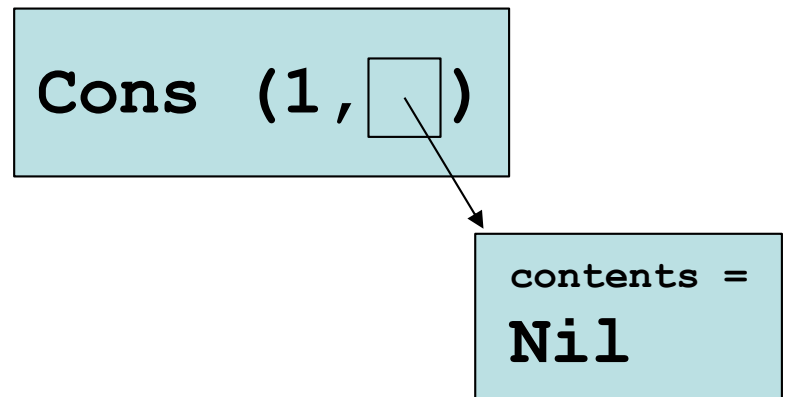
# Cyclic Data Structures Possible With Ref

```
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 reflist = 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})
```

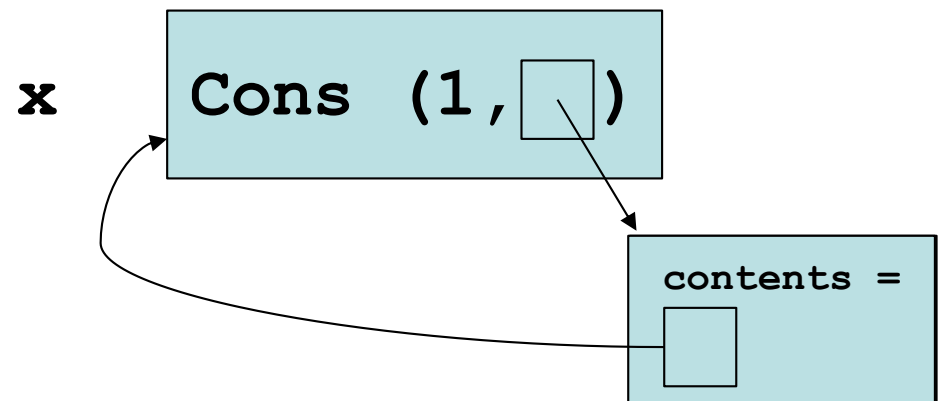
```
# updnext x x;;
```

```
- : 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 does this evaluate to?

---

```
let x = [| 0; 1 |] in  
let w = x in  
x.(0) <- 1;  
x == w
```

- A. ()
- B. true
- C. false
- D. *Type error*

## Quiz 6: What does this evaluate to?

---

```
let x = [| 0; 1 |] in  
let w = x in  
x.(0) <- 1;  
x == w
```

- A. ()
- B. **true** – they point to the same array
- C. false
- D. *Type error*

# Control structures

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- Traditional loop structures are useful with imperative features:

`while e1 do e2 done`

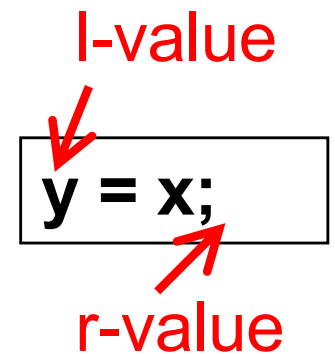
`for x=e1 to e2 do e3 done`

`for x=e1 downto e2 do e3 done`

# Comparison To L- and R-values

---

- Recall that in C/C++/Java, there's a strong distinction between l- and r-values
  - An **r-value** refers to just a value, like an integer
  - An **l-value** refers to a location that can be written
- A variable's meaning depends on where it appears
  - On the right-hand side, it's an r-value, and it refers to the contents of the variable
  - On the left-hand side of an assignment, it's an l-value, and it refers to the location the variable is stored in



# L-Values and R-Values In C

---

Store 3 in  
location x

```
int x, y;
```

```
x = 3;
```

```
y = x;
```

```
3 = x;
```

Read  
contents of x  
and store in  
location y

Makes no  
sense

- Notice that x, y, and 3 all have type `int`

# 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