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
    - $f(x) = f(x)$ for all $x$
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
  ! : 'a ref -> 'a
  := : 'a ref -> 'a -> unit
  ```

  - Allocate a reference
  - Read the value stored in reference
  - 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:

```ocaml
# 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}
```

```
3
---
contents = 3
---
3
---
contents = 3
---
3
```
References Usage

Example:

```ocaml
# 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:

```ocaml
# 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

```ocaml
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 \( x = \text{ref 42} \) in
let \( y = \text{ref 42} \) in
let \( z = x \) in
let () = \( x := 43 \) in
let \( w = !y + !z \) in
\( w \)

A. 42
B. 84
C. 85
D. 86
Quiz 1: What is the value \( w \)?

```ocaml
let x = ref 42 in
let y = ref 42 in
let z = x in
let () = x := 43 in
let w = !y + !z in
w
```

A. 42
B. 84
C. 85
D. 86
Quiz 1a: What is the value \( w \)?

\[
\text{let } x = \text{ref } 42 \text{ in } \\
\text{let } y = \text{ref } 42 \text{ in } \\
\text{let } z = !x \text{ in } \\
\text{let } () = x := 43 \text{ in } \\
\text{let } w = !y + z \text{ in } \\
\]

A. 42  
B. 84  
C. 85  
D. Error
Quiz 1a: What is the value $w$?

```
let x = ref 42 in
let y = ref 42 in
let z = !x in
let () = x := 43 in
let w = !y + z in
w
```

A. 42  
B. 84  
C. 85  
D. Error
Implement a Counter

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

# next ();;
- : int = 1

# next ();;
- : int = 2
Quiz 2: What is wrong with the counter?

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

A. Error, because `counter` isn't in scope in the final line
B. It returns a reference to an integer instead of an integer
C. It returns the same integer every time
D. Nothing is wrong
Quiz 2: What is wrong with the counter?

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

A. Error, because `counter` isn't in scope in the final line
B. It returns a reference to an integer instead of an integer
C. It returns the same integer every time
D. Nothing is wrong
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

contents = 0
ctr = loc
contents = 0
fun () ->
  ctr := !ctr + 1; !ctr
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**: \( e_1 := e_2 \)
- **Evaluation**
  - Evaluate \( e_2 \) to a value \( v_2 \)
  - Evaluate \( e_1 \) to a location \( loc \)
  - Store \( v_2 \) in contents of memory at \( loc \)
  - Return ()
- **Type checking**
  - \((e_1 := e_2) : \text{unit}\)
    - if \( e_1 : t \ \text{ref} \) and \( e_2 : t \)
References: Syntax and Semantics

• **Syntax**: !e
  • *This is not negation*

• **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

• **Syntax:** $e_1; e_2$
  
  - $e_1; e_2$ is the same as `let () = e1 in e2`

• **Evaluation**
  
  - Evaluate $e_1$ to a value $v_1$
  - Evaluate $e_2$ to a value $v_2$
  - Return $v_2$
    
    - We throw away $v_1$ – so $e_1$ is useful only if it has *effects*, e.g., if it changes a reference’s contents or accesses a file

• **Type checking**
  
  - $e_1; e_2 : t$
    
    - if $e_1 : \text{unit}$ and $e_2 : t$
• ;; 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"
Examples – Semicolon

× 1 ; 2 ;;
  • (* 2 – value of 2\textsuperscript{nd} expression is returned *)

× (1 + 2) ; 4 ;;
  • (* 4 – value of 2\textsuperscript{nd} expression is returned *)

× 1 + (2 ; 4) ;;
  • (* 5 – value of 2\textsuperscript{nd} expression is returned to 1 + *)

× 1 + 2 ; 4 ;;
  • (* 4 – because + has higher precedence than ; *)
If you’re not sure about the scoping rules, use `begin...end`, or `parentheses`, to group together statements with semicolons.
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
Quiz 3: What is the value \textbf{w}?

\begin{verbatim}
let f _ z = z+1 in
let y = ref 1 in
let w = f (y:=2) !y in

w
\end{verbatim}

A. 3
B. 2
C. Type Error
D. ()
Quiz 3: What is the value $w$?

```
let f _ z = z+1 in
let y = ref 1 in
let w = f (y:=2) !y in
w
```

A. 3
B. 2
C. Type Error
D. ()
Quiz 4: What is the value \( w \)?

```ocaml
let f z _ = z+1 in
let y = ref 1 in
let w = f !y (y:=2) in
w
```

A. 3  
B. 2  
C. Type Error  
D. ()
 Quiz 4: What is the value \( w \)?

\[
\begin{align*}
\text{let } f \ z \ _ & = z+1 \ \text{in} \\
\text{let } y = \text{ref} \ 1 \ \text{in} \\
\text{let } w = f \ !y \ (y:=2) \ \text{in} \\
\text{w}
\end{align*}
\]

A. 3
B. 2
C. Type Error
D. ( )
Structural vs. Physical Equality

- In OCaml, 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 compares objects physically
  - \([1;2;3] == [1;2;3]\) (* false *)

- Mostly you want to use the first one
  - But it’s a problem with cyclic data structures
Cyclic Data Structures Possible With Ref

```ocaml
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 reflist = Cons (1, {contents = Nil})
```

```
x    Cons (1, Nil)
```

contents = Nil
Cyclic Data Structures Possible With Ref

```ocaml
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 ref list = Cons (1, {contents = Nil})

# updnext x x;;
- : unit = ()

# x == x;;
- : bool = true

# x = x;; (* hangs *)
Mutable fields

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

```ocaml
# 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:

```ml
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

```ocaml
# let v = [|0.; 1.|];;
val v : float array = [|0.; 1.|]

# v.(0) <- 5.;;
- : unit = ()

# v;;
- : float array = [|5.; 1.|]
```
Arrays

- **Syntax:** \([ | e_1; \ldots; e_n | ]\)

- **Evaluation**
  - Evaluates to an \(n\)-element array, whose elements are initialized to \(v_1 \ldots v_n\), where \(e_1\) evaluates to \(v_1\), \(\ldots\), \(e_n\) evaluates to \(v_n\)
    - Evaluates them *right to left*

- **Type checking**
  - \([ | e_1; \ldots; e_n | ] : t \ array\)
    - If for all \(i\), each \(e_i : t\)
Arrays

- Syntax: \( e_1 . (e_2) \)

- Evaluation
  - Evaluate \( e_2 \) to integer value \( v_2 \)
  - Evaluate \( e_1 \) to array value \( v_1 \)
  - If \( 0 \leq v_2 < n \), where \( n \) is the length of array \( v_1 \), then return element at offset \( v_2 \) of \( v_1 \)
  - Else raise `Invalid_argument` exception

- Type checking: \( e_1 . (e_2) : t \)
  - if \( e_1 : t \) array and \( e_2 : \text{int} \)
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 \( e1 : \text{t} \text{array} \) and \( e2 : \text{int} \) and \( e3 : \text{t} \)
Quiz 5: What is the value \( w \)?

```ocaml
define x = [0; 1] define w = x define x.(0) <- 1; value w
```

A. 1  
B. [0; 1]  
C. Type Error  
D. [1; 1]
Quiz 5: What is the value $w$?

Let $x = [| 0; 1 |]$ in
let $w = x$ in
$x.(0) \leftarrow 1$

$w$

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

Traditional loop structures are useful with imperative features:

- while \texttt{e1} do \texttt{e2} done
- for \texttt{x=e1 to e2} do \texttt{e3} done
- for \texttt{x=e1 downto e2} do \texttt{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

\[
y = x;
\]
L-Values and R-Values In C

Store 3 in location x

Read contents of x and store in location y

Makes no sense

Notice that x, y, and 3 all have type `int`
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 state types
  - OCaml does 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

```ocaml
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

```ocaml
match x with
  ... -> -1 (* branch returns int *)
| ... -> () (* uh-oh, branch returns unit *)
| ... -> print_string "foo"
     (* also returns unit *)
```
You cannot assign to ordinary variables!

```ocaml
# 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
```
Again: You cannot assign to ordinary variables!

```ocaml
# 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
```