

CS 3110

Imperative Programming

Prof. Clarkson

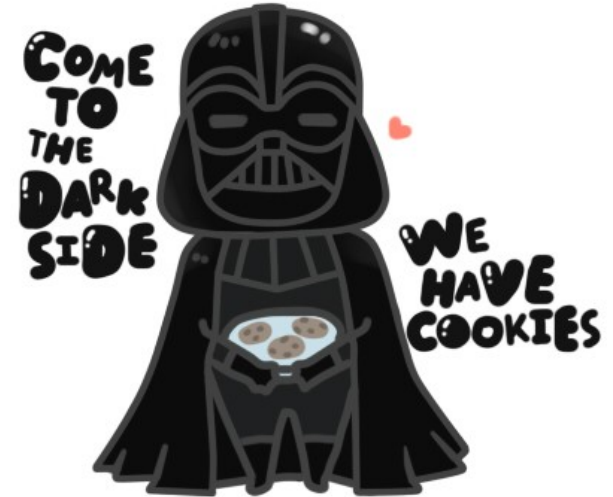
Fall 2016

Today's music: *The Imperial March*
from the soundtrack to *Star Wars, Episode V: The Empire Strikes Back*

Review

Previously in 3110:

- Functional programming
- Modular programming



Today: THE DARK SIDE ARRIVES

- Imperative data structures: refs, mutable fields

Mutable features of OCaml

- Time to finally admit that OCaml has mutable features
 - It is not a *pure language*
 - *Pure* = no side effects
- Sometimes it really is best to allow values to change:
 - call a function that returns an incremented counter every time
 - efficient hash tables
- OCaml variables really are immutable
- But OCaml has mutable *references*, *fields*, and *arrays*...

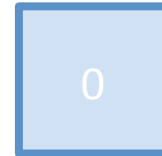
REFS

References

- aka “ref” or “ref cell”
- **Pointer** to a typed location in memory

```
# let x = ref 0;;  
val x : int ref = {contents = 0}  
# !x;;  
- : int = 0  
# x:=1;;  
- : unit = ()  
# !x;;  
- : int = 1
```

x →



x →



References

- The binding of **x** to the pointer is **immutable**, as always
- But the **contents of the memory** may change

Implementing a counter

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

- `next_val()` returns 1
- then `next_val()` returns 2
- then `next_val()` returns 3
- etc.

Implementing a counter

```
(* better: hides [counter] *)  
let next_val =  
    let counter = ref 0  
    in fun () ->  
        incr counter;  
        !counter
```


Question

What's wrong with this implementation?

```
let next_val = fun () ->  
  let counter = ref 0  
  in incr counter;  
  !counter
```

- A. It won't compile, 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 wrong integer
- D. Nothing is wrong
- E. I don't know

Question

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let next_val = fun () ->  
  let counter = ref 0  
  in incr counter;  
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```

- A. It won't compile, 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 wrong integer**
- D. Nothing is wrong
- E. I don't know

Compare these implementations

```
(* works *)  
let next_val =  
  let counter = ref 0  
  in fun () ->  
    incr counter;  
    !counter
```

```
(* broken *)  
let next_val = fun () ->  
  let counter = ref 0  
  in incr counter;  
  !counter
```

Q: Why does the first implementation work?

A: the anonymous function captures **counter** in its scope

References

- **Syntax: `ref e`**
- **Evaluation:**
 - Evaluate `e` to a value `v`
 - Allocate a new *location* `loc` in memory to hold `v`
 - Store `v` in `loc`
 - Return `loc`
 - Note: locations are first-class values; can pass and return from functions
- **Type checking:**
 - New type constructor: `t ref` where `t` is a type
 - Note: `ref` is used as keyword in type and as keyword in value
 - `ref e : t ref` if `e : t`

References

- **Syntax:** $e1 := e2$
- **Evaluation:**
 - Evaluate $e2$ to a value $v2$
 - Evaluate $e1$ to a location loc
 - Store $v2$ in loc
 - Return $()$
- **Type checking:**
 - If $e2 : t$
 - and $e1 : t \text{ ref}$
 - then $e1 := e2 : \text{unit}$

References

- **Syntax: !e**
 - note: not negation
- **Evaluation:**
 - Evaluate **e** to **loc**
 - Return contents of **loc**
- **Type checking:**
 - If **e : t ref**
 - then **!e : t**

References

- **Syntax:** $e1 ; e2$
- **Evaluation:**
 - Evaluate $e1$ to a value $v1$
 - Then **throw away** that value
(note: $e1$ could have side effects)
 - evaluate $e2$ to a value $v2$
 - return $v2$
- **Type checking:**
 - If $e1 : \text{unit}$
 - and $e2 : t$
 - then $e1 ; e2 : t$

Implementing semicolon

Semicolon is essentially syntactic sugar:

```
e1; e2
```

```
(* means the same as *)
```

```
let () = e1 in e2
```

Except: suppose it's not the case that **e1 : unit...**

- let syntax: type error
- semicolon syntax: type warning

Question

What does **w** evaluate to?

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

- A. 42
- B. 84
- C. 85
- D. 86
- E. None of the above

Question

What does **w** evaluate to?

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

- A. 42
- B. 84
- C. 85
- D. 86
- E. None of the above

Aliases

References may have **aliases**:

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

z and **x** are aliases:

- in "**let** z = x", **x** evaluates to a location, and **z** is bound to the same location
- changing the contents of that location will cause both **!x** and **!z** to change

Equality

- Suppose we have two refs...
 - `let r1 = ref 3110`
 - `let r2 = ref 3110`
- Double equals is *physical equality*
 - `r1 == r1`
 - `r1 != r2`
- Single equals is *structural equality*
 - `r1 = r1`
 - `r1 = r2`
 - `ref 3110 <> ref 2110`
- **You usually want single equals**

MUTABLE FIELDS

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
```

- That type is declared in **Pervasives**
- The functions are compiled down to something equivalent

Beware



Immutability is a valuable non-feature
might seem weird that lack of feature is valuable...

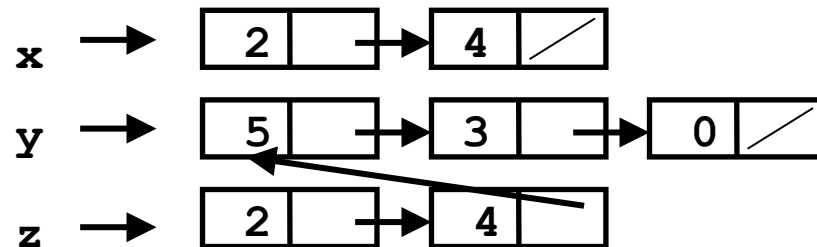
Immutable lists

We have never needed to worry about aliasing with lists!

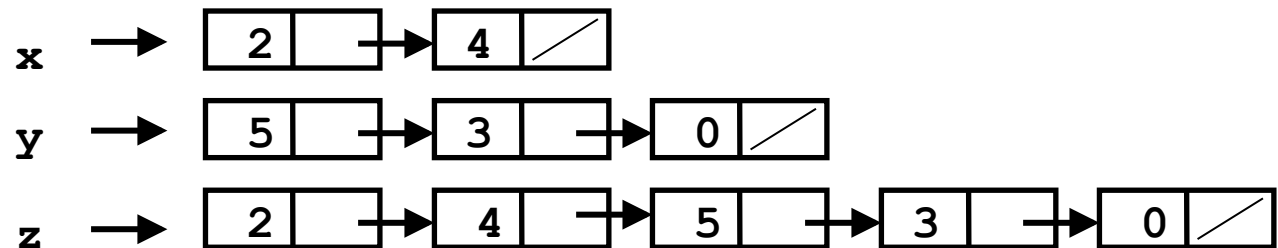
```
let x = [2;4]
```

```
let y = [5;3;0]
```

```
let z = x @ y
```



vs.



(no code you write could ever tell, but OCaml implementation uses the first one)

OCaml vs. Java on mutable data

- OCaml: **blissfully** unaware of aliasing
 - *Impossible* to tell where there is aliasing (except when using imperative features)
 - Example: `List.tl` is constant time; does not copy rest of the list
- Java: **obsession** with aliasing and object identity
 - Must be, so that subsequent assignments affect the right parts of the program
 - Often crucial to make copies in just the right places...

Java security nightmare (bad code)

```
class ProtectedResource {
    private Resource theResource = ...;
    private String[] allowedUsers = ...;
    public String[] getAllowedUsers() {
        return allowedUsers;
    }
    public String currentUser() { ... }
    public void useTheResource() {
        for(int i=0; i < allowedUsers.length; i++) {
            if(currentUser().equals(allowedUsers[i])) {
                ... // access allowed: use it
                return;
            }
        }
        throw new IllegalAccessException();
    }
}
```

Have to make copies

The problem:

```
p.getAllowedUsers()[0] = p.currentUser();  
p.useTheResource();
```

The fix:

```
public String[] getAllowedUsers() {  
    ... return a copy of allowedUsers ...  
}
```

Similar errors as recent as Java 1.7beta

Benefits of immutability

- Programmer doesn't have to think about aliasing; can concentrate on other aspects of code
- Language implementation is free to use aliasing, which is cheap
- Often easier to reason about whether code is correct
- Perfect fit for concurrent programming

But there are downsides:

- I/O is fundamentally about mutation
- Some data structures (hash tables, arrays, ...) hard(er) to implement in pure style

Try not to abuse your new-found power!

Upcoming events

- [now] people with questions about this lecture or course logistics have priority over A3 questions
- [tonight] CMS Quiz for Prelim 1 registration due
- [Wednesday] A3 due
(prohibition on imperative features still in place)

This is (reluctantly) imperative.

THIS IS 3110

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:** $[| e_1 ; \dots ; e_n |]$
- **Evaluation:** evaluates to an n -element array, whose elements are initialized to $v_1 \dots v_n$, where e_1 evaluates to v_1 , \dots , e_n evaluates to v_n
- **Type checking:** $[| e_1 ; \dots ; e_n |] : t \text{ array}$ if each $e_i : t$

Arrays

- **Syntax:** `e1 . (e2)`
- **Evaluation:** if `e1` evaluates to `v1`, and `e2` evaluates to `v2`, and $0 \leq v2 < n$, where `n` is the length of array `v1`, then evaluates to element at offset `v2` of `v1`. If `v2 < 0` or `v2 \geq n`, raises `Invalid_argument`.
- **Type checking:** `e1 . (e2) : t` if `e1 : t array` and `e2 : int`

Arrays

- **Syntax:** `e1 . (e2) <- e3`
- **Evaluation:** if `e1` evaluates to `v1`, and `e2` evaluates to `v2`, and $0 \leq v2 < n$, where `n` is the length of array `v1`, and `e3` evaluates to `v3`, then mutate element at offset `v2` of `v1` to be `v3`. If `v2 < 0` or `v2 >= n`, raise `Invalid_argument`. Evaluates to `()`.
- **Type checking:** `e1 . (e2) <- e3 : unit` if `e1 : t array` and `e2 : int` and `e3 : t`

See `Array` module for more operations, including more ways to create arrays

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**

(they work like you expect)