

Modular Programming

Prof. Clarkson Fall 2015

Today's music: "Giorgio By Moroder" by Daft Punk

The Moog modular synthesizer



Review

Previously in 3110:

- Functions, data
- lots of language features
- how to build small programs

Today:

- how to build *large* programs
- language features: structure, signatures, modules

Question

What's the largest program you've ever worked on, by yourself or as part of a team?

- A. 10-100 LoC
- B. 100-1,000 LoC
- C. 1,000-10,000 LoC
- D. 10,000-100,000 LoC
- E. 100,000 LoC or bigger

Scale

Staff solution to A1: 100 LoC

Staff solution to A2: 200 LoC

• OCaml: 200,000 LoC

Unreal engine 3: 2,000,000 LoC

Windows Vista: 50,000,000 LoC

http://www.informationisbeautiful.net/visualizations/million-lines-of-code/

...can't be done by one person

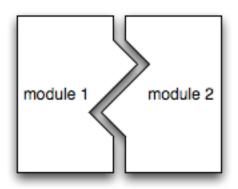
...no individual programmer can understand all the details

...too complex to build with subset of OCaml we've seen so far

Modularity

Modular programming: code comprises independent *modules*

- developed separately
- understand behavior of module in isolation
- reason locally, not globally



Java features for modularity

- classes, packages
 - organize identifiers (classes, methods, fields, etc.) into namespaces
- interfaces
 - describe related classes
- public, protected, private
 - control what is visible outside a namespace
- subtyping, inheritance
 - enables code reuse

OCaml features for modularity

- structures
 - organize identifiers (functions, values, etc.) into namespaces
- signatures
 - describe related modules
- abstract types
 - control what is visible outside a namespace
- functors, includes
 - enable code reuse

...together, these features comprise the OCaml module system

MODULES

Running examples

- Stacks
- Queues

- Functional aka persistent data structures:
 - never mutate the data structure
 - old versions of the data structure persist and are still usable

Stack module

```
module MyStack = struct
  type 'a stack =
   Empty
   Entry of 'a * 'a stack
  let empty = Empty
  let is empty s = s = Empty
  let push x s = Entry(x, s)
  let peek = function
      Empty -> failwith "Empty"
     Entry(x, ) \rightarrow x
  let pop = function
     Empty -> failwith "Empty"
    | Entry( ,s) -> s
end
```

Another Stack module

```
module ListStack = struct
  let empty = []
  let is empty s = s = []
  let push x s = x :: s
  let peek = function
    | [] -> failwith "Empty"
    | x:: -> x
  let pop = function
    [] -> failwith "Empty"
   ::xs -> xs
end
```

Might seem backwards...

• In Java, might write

```
s = new Stack();
s.push(1);
s.pop();
```

- The stack is to the left of the dot, the method name is to the right
- In OCaml, it's seemingly backward:

```
let s = MyStack.empty in
let s' = MyStack.push 1 s in
let one = MyStack.peek s'
```

- The stack is an argument to every function (common **idioms** are last argument or first argument)
- Just a syntactic detail (boring)

Yet another Stack module

Assume a type 'a fastlist with constructor FastNil and FastCons that have a more efficient implementation than 'a list...

```
module FastStack = struct
  let empty = FastNil
  ...
end
```

A multitude of implementations

- Each has its own representation type
 - MyStack uses 'a stack
 - -ListStack uses 'a list
 - FastStack uses (hypothetical) 'a fastlist
- Which causes each module to have a different interface...

Defining signatures

```
module type ListStackSig = sig
  val empty : 'a list
  val is empty : 'a list -> bool
  val push : 'a -> 'a list -> 'a list
  val peek : 'a list -> 'a
  val pop : 'a list -> 'a list
end
module ListStack : ListStackSig = struct
end
```

Stack signatures

```
module ListStack : sig
  val empty : 'a list
  val is empty : 'a list -> bool
  val push : 'a -> 'a list -> 'a list
  val peek : 'a list -> 'a
  val pop : 'a list -> 'a list
end
module MyStack : sig
  type 'a stack = Empty | Entry of 'a * 'a stack
  val empty : 'a stack
  val is empty : 'a stack -> bool
  val push : 'a -> 'a stack -> 'a stack
  val peek : 'a stack -> 'a
  val pop : 'a stack -> 'a stack
end
```

Stack signatures

```
module ListStack : sig
  val empty : 'a list
  val is empty : 'a list -> bool
  val push : 'a -> 'a list -> 'a list
  val peek : 'a list -> 'a
  val pop : 'a list -> 'a list
end
module MyStack : sig
  type 'a stack = Empty | Entry of 'a * 'a stack
  val empty : 'a stack
  val is empty : 'a stack -> bool
  val push : 'a -> 'a stack -> 'a stack
  val peek : 'a stack -> 'a
  val pop : 'a stack -> 'a stack
end
```

A multitude of implementations

- Client code shouldn't need to know what the representation type is
- Client code shouldn't get to know what the representation type is
- Rule of thumb: clients will exploit knowledge of representation if you let them
 - One day a client of **ListStack** will write **x::s** instead of **push** x s
 - And the day you upgrade to fast lists, you will break their code
- So how can we unify these representations?

```
module type Stack = sig
  type 'a stack
  val empty : 'a stack
  val is_empty : 'a stack -> bool
  val push : 'a -> 'a stack -> 'a stack
  val peek : 'a stack -> 'a
  val pop : 'a stack -> 'a
end
```

'a **stack** is **abstract**: signature declares only that type exists, but does not define what the type is

```
module MyStack : Stack = struct
  type 'a stack = type 'a stack = Empty | Entry of 'a * 'a stack
  ...

module ListStack : Stack = struct
  type 'a stack = 'a list
  ...

module FastListStack : Stack = struct
  type 'a stack = 'a fastlist
  ...
```

- Every module of type **Stack** must define the abstract type
- Inside the module, types are synonyms
- Outside the module, types are not synonyms
 List.hd ListStack.empty will not compile

General principle: information hiding aka encapsulation

- Clients of **Stack** don't need to know it's implemented (e.g.) with a list
- Implementers of **Stack** might one day want to change the implementation
 - If list implementation is exposed, they can't without breaking all their clients' code
 - If list implementation is hidden, they can freely change
 - e.g., suppose Microsoft wants to update the data structure representing a window or canvas or file

Common **idiom** is to call the abstract type **t**:

```
module type Stack = sig
 type 'a t
 val empty : 'a t
 val is_empty : 'a t -> bool
 val push : 'a -> 'a t -> 'a t
 val peek : 'a t -> 'a
 val pop : 'a t -> 'a t
end
module ListStack : Stack = struct
  type 'a t = 'a list
```

Queues

- Two implementations of functional queues in code accompanying lecture:
 - Queues as lists (poor performance)
 - Queues as two lists (good performance)
- Study these!

SYNTAX AND SEMANTICS

Module syntax

```
module ModuleName [:t] = struct
   definitions
end
```

- the **ModuleName** must be capitalized
- type t (which must be a module type) is optional
- definitions can include let, type, exception
- definitions can even include nested module

```
A module creates a new namespace:

module M = struct let x = 42 end

let y = M.x
```

Signature syntax

```
module type SignatureName = sig
    type specifications
end
```

- type specifications aka declarations
- the SignatureName does not have to be capitalized but usually is
- declarations can include val, type, exception
 - val name : type
 - type t [= definition]
- declarations can even include nested module type

Type checking

If you give a module a type...

```
module Mod : Sig = struct ... end
```

Then type checker ensures...

- Signature matching: everything declared in Sig must be defined in Mod
- 2. Encapsulation: nothing other than what's declared in Sig can be accessed from outside Mod

1. Signature matching

```
module type S1 = sig
 val x:int
  val y:int
end
module M1 : S1 = struct
  let x = 42
end
(* type error:
   Signature mismatch:
   The value `y' is required but not provided
*)
```

2. Encapsulation

```
module type S2 = sig
  val x:int
end
module M2 : S2 = struct
  let x = 42
  let y = 7
end
M2.y
(* type error: Unbound value M2.y *)
```

Evaluation

```
To evaluate a module
  struct
     def1
     def2
     defn
  end
evaluate each definition in order
```

PRAGMATICS

Modules and files

Compilation unit = myfile.ml + myfile.mli

```
If myfile.ml has contents DM [and myfile.mli has contents DS] then OCaml compiler behaves essentially as though:
```

```
module Myfile [: sig DS end] =
struct
   DM
end
```

Modules and files

```
File stack.mli:
(* The type of a stack whose
   elements are type 'a *)
type 'a t
(* The empty stack *)
val empty : 'a t
(* Whether the stack is empty*)
val is empty : 'a t -> bool
(* [push x s] is the stack [s] with
   [x] pushed on the top *)
val push : 'a -> 'a t -> 'a t
(* [peek s] is the top element of [s].
   raises Failure if [s] is empty *)
val peek : 'a t -> 'a
(* [pop s] pops and discards the top
   element of [s].
  raises Failure if [s] is empty *)
val pop : 'a t -> 'a t
```

```
File stack.ml:
(* Represent a stack as a list.
   [x::xs] is the stack with top
  element [x]and remaining
  elements [xs]. *)
type 'a t = 'a list
let empty = []
let is empty s = s = []
let push x s = x :: s
(* Consider: using options
  instead of exceptions. *)
let peek = function
        -> failwith "Empty"
   x:: -> x
let pop = function
    [] -> failwith "Empty"
   ::xs -> xs
```

Note: no **struct** or **sig** keywords, no naming of module or module type Note: comments to client in **.mli**, comments to implementers in **.ml**

What about main()?

- There is no specific entry point into a module
- Common idiom is to make the last definition in a module be a function call that starts computation, e.g.

 And you might call that function main instead of go_do_stuff, but you don't need to

Upcoming events

• [next Thursday] A2 due

This is modular.

THIS IS 3110