Programming Languages and Techniques (CIS1200)

Lecture 13

Partiality and Options
Records
Unit, Sequencing, and Commands
Mutable State and Aliasing

Chapters 11, 12, 13

Announcements

- Midterm 1: Friday, February 14th Monday, February 17th
 - Coverage: up to today (Chapters 1-10)
 - During lecture

Last names: A – L Meyerson Hall B1 Stiteler AUD (here)

M-Z DRL A1

- 60 minutes; closed book, single-sided note page allowed
- MAKE UP EXAM, Wednesday, February 19th 9-10AM, must preregister
- Review Material
 - old exams on the web site ("schedule" tab)
- Review Session
 - Tonight, 7:00-9:00pm, Towne 100 (will be recorded)
 - Review Videos available

Plan for Today

- Two more useful features
 - -partiality via "options"
 - -records with named components
- Then, a paradigm shift:
 - mutable state

Dealing with Partiality*

*A function is said to be *partial* if it is not defined for all inputs.

Which of these is a function that calculates the maximum value in a (generic) list:

4. None of the above

Answer: 4

Oops!

Not clear what to do when list_max is called with an empty list!

```
let rec list_max (l:'a list) : 'a =
  begin match l with
  | [] -> failwith "empty list"
  | [h] -> h
  | h::t -> max h (list_max t)
  end
```

Client of list max

```
(* string_of_max calls list_max *)
let string_of_max (x:int list) : string =
  string_of_int (list_max x)
```

- Oops! string_of_max will fail if given []
- Not so easy to debug if String_of_max is written by one person and list_max is written by another.
- Interface of list_max is not very informative
 val list_max : int list -> int

Solutions to Partiality: Option 1

Abort the program:

failwith "an error message"

- Whenever it is called, failwith halts the program and reports the error message it is given.
- This solution is appropriate when:
 - You know that a certain case is impossible...
 - ...but the compiler isn't smart enough to figure out that the case is impossible
 - E.g., perhaps because there is an invariant on a data structure that the compiler doesn't understand

Solutions to Partiality: Option 2

- Return a *default or error value*
 - e.g. define list_max [] to be -1
 - "Error codes" used often in C programs
 - null used often in Java



- But...
 - 1. What if -1 (or whatever default you choose) really is the maximum value?
 - Can lead to hideous bugs if the default isn't handled properly by the callers.
 - 2. Impossible to implement generically!
 - No way to generically create a sensible default value for every possible type

Sir Tony Hoare, Turing Award winner and inventor of null, calls it his "billion dollar mistake"!

Default return values should be avoided if possible!

Solutions to Partiality: Option 3

Return something that *cannot* be misinterpreted as a legitimate, non-exceptional result ...

Optional values

Solutions to Partiality: Option 3

Option Types

• Define a generic datatype of *optional values*:

• A "partial" function returns an option

```
let list_max (l:'a list) : 'a option = ...
```

- Safer than "null" (a legal value of any type in Java) or "None" in Python
 - Caller must pattern match to access the value
- Modern language designs (e.g. Apple's Swift, Mozilla's Rust) distinguish between the types String (definitely not null) and String? (optional string)

Example: list_max

A function that returns the maximum value of a list as an option

- Returns None if the list is empty

Revised Client of list_max

```
(* string_of_max calls list_max *)
let string_of_max (l:int list) : string =
  begin match (list_max l) with
  | None -> "no maximum"
  | Some m -> string_of_int m
  end
```

- string_of_max will never fail
- The type of list_max makes it explicit that a *client* must check for partiality.

```
val list_max : int list -> int option
```

What is the type of this function?

```
let head (x: _____) : ___ =
  begin match x with
  | [] -> None
  | h :: t -> Some h
  end
```

- 1. 'a list -> 'a
- 2. 'a list -> 'a list
- 3. 'a list -> 'b option
- 4. 'a list -> 'a option
- 5. None of the above

Answer: 4

```
What is the value of this expression?
```

```
let head (x: 'a list) : 'a option =
  begin match x with
  | [] -> None
  | h :: t -> Some h
  end in

[ head [1]; head [] ]
```

- 1. [1;0]
- 2. 1
- 3. [Some 1; None]
- 4. [None; None]
- 5. None of the above

Answer: 3

Revising the MAP interface

```
module type MAP = sig

type ('k,'v) map

val empty : ('k,'v) map
val add : 'k -> 'v -> ('k,'v) map -> ('k,'v) map
val remove : 'k -> ('k,'v) map -> ('k,'v) map
val mem : 'k -> ('k,'v) map -> bool
val get : 'k -> ('k,'v) map -> 'v option
val entries : ('k,'v) map -> ('k * 'v) list
val equals : ('k,'v) map -> ('k,'v) map -> bool
end
```

get returns an optional 'v. Now its type isn't a lie!

Records

Records

Records are like tuples with named fields:

```
(* a type for representing colors *)
type rgb = {r:int; g:int; b:int}

(* some example rgb values *)
let red : rgb = {r=255; g=0; b=0}
let blue : rgb = {r=0; g=0; b=255}
let green : rgb = {r=0; g=255; b=0}
let black : rgb = {r=0; g=0; b=0}
let white : rgb = {r=255; g=255; b=255}
```

- The type rgb is a record with three fields: r, g, and b
 - fields can have any types; they don't all have to be the same
- Record values are created using this notation:

```
{field1=val1; field2=val2;...}
```

Field Projection

 The value in a record field can be obtained by using "dot" notation: record.field

```
(* a type for representing colors *)
type rgb = {r:int; g:int; b:int}

(* using 'dot' notation to project out components,
    calculate the average of two colors... *)
let average_rgb (c1:rgb) (c2:rgb) : rgb =
    {r = (c1.r + c2.r) / 2;
    g = (c1.g + c2.g) / 2;
    b = (c1.b + c2.b) / 2;}
```

Imperative Programming

And now for something completely different...



Imperative programming

- Most of the code we have written so far is focused on being.
 - An expression is just a complicated way of describing a value
 - Computation is just simplifying an expression until it can't be simplified any more
- But sometimes it is useful to *make things happen* outside the computer
 - E.g., print_string
- And sometimes it is useful to make things happen inside the computer as well
 - E.g., "mutating" a data structure in memory

Different views of imperative programming

Java (and C, C++, C#, etc.)

- Code is a sequence of statements (a.k.a. commands) that produce effects
- Data structures are mutable by default; must be explicitly declared to be constant

OCaml (and Haskell, etc.)

- Code is an expression that has a value; sometimes computing that value also produces effects along the way
- Data structures are immutable by default; must be explicitly declared to be mutable

Commands, Sequencing, and Unit

What is the type of print_string?

Sequencing Commands and Expressions

We can sequence commands inside expressions using ';'

```
let f (x:int) : int =
  print_string "f called with ";
  print_string (string_of_int x);
  x + x
```

do not use ';' here!

note the use of ';' here

Unlike in C, Java, etc., ';' doesn't terminate a statement---it *separates* a command from an expression The distinction between commands & expressions is artificial

- print_string is a function of type string -> unit
- Commands are just expressions of type unit

Sequencing Commands and Expressions

 Expressions of type unit are useful because of their side effects – they "do" stuff

```
let f (x:int) : int =
  print_string "f called with ";
  print_string (string_of_int x);
  x + x

do not use ';' here!

note the use of ';' here
```

Something to be Careful Of

What does this function do?

```
let f (x:int) : int =
  if x < 0 then
    print_string "f called with negative argument ";
    print_string (string_of_int x)
  else
    print_string "f called with non-negative argument ";
    print_string (string_of_int x);
    x + x</pre>
```

Something to be Careful Of

Compound commands inside then and else branches of if statements should be enclosed in begin/end or parens ()

```
let f (x:int) : int =
   if x < 0 then

    begin
        print_string "f called with negative argument ";
        print_string (string_of_int x)

end
else

begin
    print_string "f called with non-negative argument ";
    print_string (string_of_int x)
end;
x + x</pre>
```

Something to be Careful Of

Compound commands inside then and else branches of if statements should be enclosed in begin/end or parens ()

```
let f (x:int) : int =
   if x < 0 then

    print_string "f called with negative argument ";
    print_string (string_of_int x)

else
    print_string "f called with non-negative argument ";
    print_string (string_of_int x)

    x + x

In OCaml, begin and end are
    just syntactic sugar for ( and )</pre>
```

unit: the trivial type

- Similar to "void" in Java or C
- Used for functions that don't take any arguments

```
let f () : int = 3
let y : int = f ()
val f : unit -> int
val y : int
```

... and for functions that don't return anything, such as testing and printing functions
 – a.k.a commands:

```
(* run_test : string -> (unit -> bool) -> unit *)
;; run_test "TestName" test

(* print_string : string -> unit *)
;; print_string "Hello, world!"
```

unit: the boring type

- Actually, () is a value just like any other value (a 0-ary tuple)
- Used for functions that don't take any interesting arguments

```
let f () : int = 3
let y : int = f ()
val f : unit -> int
val y : int
```

 ...And for functions that don't return anything interesting, such as testing and printing functions — a.k.a commands:

```
(* run_test : string -> (unit -> bool) -> unit *)
;; run_test "TestName" test

(* print_string : string -> unit *)
;; print_string "Hello, world!"
```

unit: the first-class type

Can define values of type unit (not so useful)

```
let x : unit = ()
val x : unit
```

Can pattern match against unit (useful in function definitions!)

• Unit is the result of an implicit else branch:

```
;; if z <> 4 then failwith "oops" ;; if z <> 4 then failwith "oops" else ()
```

```
What is the type of f in the following program:
```

```
let f (x:int) =
  print_int (x + x)
```

- 1. unit -> int
- 2. unit -> unit
- 3. int -> unit
- 4. int -> int
- 5. f is ill typed

Answer: 3

```
What is the type of f in the following program:
```

```
let f (x:int) =
    (print_int x);
    (x + x)
```

- 1. unit -> int
- 2. unit -> unit
- 3. int -> unit
- 4. int -> int
- 5. f is ill typed

Answer: 4

Mutable State

Opening a Whole New Can of Worms*



*t-shirt courtesy of ahrefs.com

Mutable Record Fields

- By default, records in OCaml are immutable: once created, they can never be modified.
- OCaml also supports mutable fields that can be imperatively updated by the "set" command: record.field <- val

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

let p0 = {x=0; y=0}
  (* set the x coord of p0 to 17 *)
  ;; p0.x <- 17
  ;; print_endline ("p0.x = " ^ (string_of_int p0.x))

p0.x = 17</pre>
```

in-place update of p0.x

Record Update

- Functions can assign to mutable record fields
- Note that the return type of '<-' is unit
 - i.e., it is a command

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

(* a command to shift a point by dx,dy *)
let shift (p:point) (dx:int) (dy:int) : unit =
  p.x <- p.x + dx;
  p.y <- p.y + dy</pre>
```

- Note that the result type of shift is also unit
 - i.e., shift is a user-defined command

What answer does the following function produce when called?

```
type point = {mutable x:int; mutable y:int}
let f (p1:point) : int =
  p1.x <- 17;
  p1.x</pre>
```

- 1. 17
- 2. something else
- 3. sometimes 17 and sometimes something else
- 4. f is ill typed

ANSWER: 1

What answer does the following function produce when called?

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

let f (p1:point) (p2:point) : int =
  p1.x <- 17;
  p2.x <- 42;
  p1.x</pre>
```

- 1. 17
- 2. something else
- 3. sometimes 17 and sometimes something else
- 4. f is ill typed

ANSWER: 3

The Challenge of Mutable State: Aliasing

```
let f (p1:point) (p2:point) : int =
  p1.x <- 17;
  p2.x <- 42;
  p1.x</pre>
```

Consider this call to f:

```
let p0 = {x=0; y=0} in f p0 p0
```

Two identifiers are said to be *aliases* if they both name the *same* mutable record. Inside f, the identifiers p1 and p2 might or might not be aliased, depending on which arguments are passed in.

SEE THE COURSE NOTES FOR MORE ON THIS EXAMPLE

Why Use Mutable State?

- Direct manipulation of hardware
 - device drivers, displays, etc.
- "Action at a distance"
 - allow remote parts of a program to communicate / share information without threading the information through all the points in between
 - E.g., global settings
- Efficiency/Performance
 - A few (but only a few!) data structures have imperative implementations with better asymptotic efficiency than the best declarative version
- Data structures with explicit sharing
 - e.g. graphs
 - (without mutation, it is only possible to build trees no cycles!)
- Re-using space (in-place update)
- Random-access data (arrays)

