Programming Languages and Techniques (CIS120)

Lecture 12

Feb 8, 2012

Options, Unit and (Mutable!) Records

Announcements

- Homework 4 is available on the web.
 - due Monday, February 13th at 11:59:59pm
 - n-body physics simulation
 - start early; see Piazza for discussions
- Updated lecture notes also available...
 - New language features in homework 4
- Midterm 1 will be in class on Wednesday, February 15th
 - LOCATION: LLAB 10
 - Review materials on website
 - Bring questions to lab
 - Review session Tuesday evening
 - Let me know about scheduling problems ASAP

Quick quiz

 Write a recursive function to calculate the maximum value in a list of numbers

```
let rec list_max (l:'a list) : 'a =
```

Quiz answer

 Write a recursive function to calculate the maximum value in a list of numbers

Dealing with Partiality

Option Types

Partial Functions

- Sometimes functions aren't defined for all inputs:
 - tree_max from the BST implementation isn't defined for empty trees
 - integer division by 0
 - Map.find k m when the key k isn't in the finite map m
- We have seen how to deal with partiality using failwith
 - but failwith aborts the program
- Can we do better?
- Hint: we already have all the technology we need.

Option Types

Define a generic datatype of optional values:

A "partial" function returns an option

```
let list_max (l:list) : int option = ...
```

- Contrast this with null value, a "legal" return value of any type
 - caller can accidentally forget to check whether null was used; results in NullPointerExceptions or crashes
 - Sir Tony Hoare, Turing Award winner and inventor of "null" calls it his "billion dollar mistake"!

Example: list_max

 A function that returns the maximum value of a list as an option (None if the list is empty)

Example: list_max

 A function that returns the maximum value of a list as an option (None if the list is empty)

Unit

unit: the trivial type

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

```
let f () : int = 3
let y : int = f ()

val f : unit -> int
val y : int
```

 Also 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.
- For functions that don't take any interesting arguments

```
let f () : int = 3
let y : int = f ()

val f : unit -> int
val y : int
```

 Also 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

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

Can pattern match unit (even in function definitions)

```
let z = begin match x with 
 | () -> 4 
 end
```

• Is the implicit else branch:

```
;; if z <> 4 then
    failwith "test failed"

cls120/Spring 2012

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

Sequencing Commands and Expressions

- Expressions of type unit are useful because of their side effects (e.g. printing)
- We can sequence those effects using ';'
 - unlike in C, Java, etc., ';' doesn't terminate a statement it separates a command from an expression

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

do not use ';' here!

note the use of ';' here

We can think of ';' as an infix function of type:
 unit -> 'a -> 'a

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

```
(* 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;}
```

"with" notation for copying records

 Sometimes it is useful to copy one record while replacing just a few of its fields:

```
(* using 'with' notation to copy a record but
  change one (or more) fields *)
let cyan = {blue with g=255}
let magenta = {red with b=255}
let yellow = {green with r=255}
```

Syntax: {record with field1=val1; field2=val2}
 note the '{' and '}'

Imperative Programming

Course Overview

- Declarative programming
 - persistent data structures
 - recursion is main control structure
 - heavy use of functions as data



We are here.

Midterm 1 covers

material up to this point.

- Imperative programming
 - mutable data structures (that can be modified "in place")
 - iteration is main control structure
- Object-oriented programming
 - pervasive "abstraction by default"
 - mutable data structures / iteration
 - heavy use of functions (objects) as data

Why Use Declarative Programming?

Simple

- small language: arithmetic, local variables, recursive functions, datatypes, pattern matching, polymorphism and modules
- simple substitution model of computation
- Persistent data structures
 - Nothing changes, so can remember all intermediate results
 - Good for version control, fault tolerance, etc.
- Typecheckers give more helpful errors
 - Once your program compiles, it needs less testing
 - failwith vs. NullPointerException
- Easier to parallelize and distribute
 - No implicit interactions between parts of the program. All of the behavior of a function is specified by its arguments

Why Use Mutable State?

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

A new view of imperative programming

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

- Null is contained in (almost) every type. Partial functions can return null.
- Code is a sequence of statements that do something, sometimes using expressions to compute values.
- References are mutable by default, must be explicitly declared to be constant

OCaml

- No null. Partiality must be made explicit with options.
- Code is an expression that has a value. Sometimes computing that value has other effects.
- References are immutable by default, must be explicitly declared to be mutable

Mutable Record Fields

- By default, all record fields are *immutable*—once initialized, they can never be modified.
- OCaml supports mutable fields that can be imperatively updated by the "set" command: record.field <- val

note the 'mutable' keyword

```
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))</pre>
```

"in-place" update of p0.x

Defining new Commands

- Functions can assign to mutable record fields
- Note that the return type of '<-' is unit

```
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>
```