

References	

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# Mutability

 In most programming languages, variables are mutable — i.e., a variable provides both

• a name that refers to a previously calculated value, and

• the possibility of overwriting this value with another (which will be referred to by the same name)

In some languages (e.g., OCaml), these two features are kept separate

- variables are only for naming the binding between a variable and its value is immutable
- introduce a new class of mutable values (called reference cells or references)
- at any given moment, a reference holds a value (and can be dereferenced to obtain this value)
- a new value may be assigned to a reference

We choose OCaml's style, which is easier to work with formally.

So a variable of type T in most languages (except OCaml) will correspond to a Ref T (actually, a Ref(Option T)) here.

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## **Basic Examples**

r = ref 5

!r

r := 7

(r:=succ(!r); !r)

(r:=succ(!r); r:=succ(!r); r:=succ(!r); !r)

### i.e.,

(((((r:=succ(!r); r:=succ(!r)); r:=succ(!r)); r:=succ(!r)); !r)

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## The difficulties of aliasing

The possibility of aliasing invalidates all sorts of useful forms of reasoning about programs, both by programmers...

The function

 $\lambda r: Ref Nat. \lambda s: Ref Nat. (r:=2; s:=3; !r)$ 

always returns 2 unless  ${\bf r}$  and  ${\bf s}$  are aliases for the same cell.

...and by compilers:

Code motion out of loops, common subexpression elimination, allocation of variables to registers, and detection of uninitialized variables all depend upon the compiler knowing which objects a load or a store operation could reference.

High-performance compilers spend significant energy on alias analysis to try to establish when different variables cannot possibly refer to the same storage.

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The problems of aliasing have led some language designers simply to disallow it (e.g., Haskell).

But there are good reasons why most languages do provide constructs involving aliasing:

- efficiency (e.g., arrays)
- "action at a distance" (e.g., symbol tables)
- shared resources (e.g., locks) in concurrent systems

♦ etc.

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Example
c = ref 0
incc = \lambda x:Unit. (c := succ (!c); !c)
decc = \lambda x:Unit. (c := pred (!c); !c)
incc unit
decc unit
o = {i = incc, d = decc}

```
let newcounter =
\lambda_:Unit.
  let c = ref 0 in
  let incc = \lambda x:Unit. (c := succ (!c); !c) in
  let decc = \lambda x:Unit. (c := pred (!c); !c) in
  let o = {i = incc, d = decc} in
  o
```

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	Syntax	Typing Rules
<pre>t ::=     unit     x     Xx:T.t     t t     ref t     !t     t:=t</pre>	terms unit constant variable abstraction application reference creation dereference assignment	$\frac{\Gamma \vdash t_1 : T_1}{\Gamma \vdash \text{ref } t_1 : \text{Ref } T}$ $\frac{\Gamma \vdash t_1 : \text{Ref } T_1}{\Gamma \vdash !t_1 : T_1}$ $\frac{\Gamma \vdash t_1 : \text{Ref } T_1 \qquad \Gamma \vdash T}{\Gamma \vdash t_1 : \text{ref } T_1 \qquad \Gamma \vdash T}$
plus other familiar types, in	examples.	1.22 Ortober



Final example	
NatArray	= Ref (Nat→Nat);
iewarray	= $\lambda_{\perp}$ :Unit. ref ( $\lambda$ n:Nat.0); : Unit $\rightarrow$ NatArray
Lookup = :	$\lambda$ a:NatArray. $\lambda$ n:Nat. (!a) n; NatArray $\rightarrow$ Nat $\rightarrow$ Nat
update = :	$\begin{split} \lambda a: & \texttt{NatArray. } \lambda m: \texttt{Nat. } \lambda v: \texttt{Nat.} \\ & \texttt{let oldf = !a in} \\ & \texttt{a := (} \lambda n: \texttt{Nat. if equal m n then v else oldf n);} \\ & \texttt{NatArray} \rightarrow \texttt{Nat} \rightarrow \texttt{Nat} \rightarrow \texttt{Unit} \end{split}$