### 15-150

## Principles of Functional Programming

Slides for Lecture 21

Imperative Programming

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### Lessons:

- Mutation
  - Mutable cells
  - Typing rules
  - Evaluation rules
- Aliasing
- Race Conditions
- Ephemeral Data vs Persistent Data
- Benign Effects

# A New Type

The type is written

t ref

with t any ML type.

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The type is written

t ref

with t any ML type.

Restriction: at top-level, t must be monomorphic.

(This is a consequence of SML's "value restriction", designed to avoid bizarre side-effects. We won't discuss details.)

## Values

We think of a value of type t ref as being a cell that contains a value v of type t:

v

E.g, 7

is a value of type int ref containing the value 7 of type int.

(Create such a cell by writing ref 7.)

# Typing and Evaluation

- Expressions involving reference cells have precise type-checking and evaluation rules.
- As always in SML, type-checking happens before evaluation.
- We will discuss evaluation first, since that is a natural way to introduce new constructs involving reference cells. (We assume all expressions are well-typed during evaluation.)

### ref e

### **Evaluation rules:**

- Evaluate expression e.
- If e reduces to a value v, then create and return a new cell containing v.

Pictorially: If 
$$e \hookrightarrow v$$
, then  $ref e \hookrightarrow v$ .

Example: 
$$val c = ref 7$$

### !e

### **Evaluation rules:**

- Evaluate expression e.
- If e reduces to a cell containing value v, then return v.

Pictorially: If 
$$e \hookrightarrow v$$
, then  $e \hookrightarrow v$ .

Example: 
$$val c = ref 7$$
  
 $val v = !c$ 

That creates bindings 7 /c and 7/v.

$$e_1 := e_2$$

#### **Evaluation rules:**

- Evaluate expression e<sub>1</sub>.
- If e<sub>1</sub> reduces to cell c, then evaluate e<sub>2</sub>.
- If e<sub>2</sub> reduces to value v, then change the contents of c to be v and return ().

observe

$$e_1 := e_2$$

### **Evaluation rules:**

- Evaluate expression e<sub>1</sub>.
- If e<sub>1</sub> reduces to cell c, then evaluate e<sub>2</sub>.
- If  $e_2$  reduces to value v, then change the contents of c to be v and return ().

Pictorially: If  $e_1 \hookrightarrow w$  (some w) and if  $e_2 \hookrightarrow v$ , then replace w with v in the cell above.

Example: val c = ref 7 7

$$e_1 := e_2$$

### **Evaluation rules:**

- Evaluate expression e<sub>1</sub>.
- If e<sub>1</sub> reduces to cell c, then evaluate e<sub>2</sub>.
- If e<sub>2</sub> reduces to value v, then change the contents of c to be v and return ().

Pictorially: If  $e_1 \hookrightarrow w$  (some w) and if  $e_2 \hookrightarrow v$ , then replace w with v in the cell above.

Example: val 
$$c = ref 7$$
  
val  $() = c := 4$   
val  $v = !c$ 

$$4 / v$$

## Typing Rules

```
• ref e : t ref if e : t.
• !e : t if e : t ref.
• e<sub>1</sub> := e<sub>2</sub> : unit
                  if e<sub>1</sub>: t ref
              and e_2: t.
```

## (and so we also have)

ref is similar to a constructor.
 It has type 'a -> 'a ref.

• ! : 'a ref -> 'a .

• (op:=) : 'a ref \* 'a -> unit.

## Side Comment

There is no explicit "deallocation" of cells.

In practice, a garbage collector reclaims cells once they become inaccessible via any code (e.g., permanently shadowed).

We do not worry about that in this course.

# pattern matching

### Can pattern match on ref:

```
(* containsZero : int ref -> bool *)
fun containsZero (ref 0) = true
  containsZero = false
val d = ref 42
val false = containsZero d
val false = containsZero (ref 7)
val true = containsZero (ref 0)
```

# Aliasing

```
val c = ref 10
val w = !c
val d = c

val () = d := 42
val v = !c
```

To what values are w and v bound?

# Aliasing

```
val c = ref 10
val w = !c
val d = c
```

We say that c and d are aliases for the same cell.

```
val () = d := 42
val v = !c
```

To what values are w and v bound?

Answer: 10/w 42/v

## Another Example

```
fun twice (x : 'a) : 'a ref * 'a ref =
    let
       val c = ref x
    in
       (c, c)
    end
val(p, q) = twice 7
val () = p := 2
val (y, z) = (!p, !q)
    To what values are y and z bound?
```

## Another Example

```
fun twice (x : 'a) : 'a ref * 'a ref =
    let
       val c = ref x
    in
       (c, c)
    end
val(p, q) = twice 7
val () = p := 2
val (y, z) = (!p, !q)
```

p and q are aliases for the same cell, so y and z are both bound to value 2.

To what values are y and z bound?

### Cells Can Contain Cells

```
val cc = ref (ref 9) : int ref ref
val d = ref 5
val(x, y) = (ref d, ref d)
        5 /d 5 /x 5 /y
```

Caution: x and y are different cells but contain the same cell d, i.e., 5.

## Potentially Circular Structures

## Potentially Circular Structures

```
datatype 'a chain = Val of 'a
                     Link of 'a chain ref
val (x as Link c) = Link (ref (Val 7))
       x : int chain c : int chain ref Link Val 7
val () = c := x
```

## Potentially Circular Structures

```
datatype 'a chain = Val of 'a
                                                                                                                                                                                                                                                                   Link of 'a chain ref
val (x as Link c) = Link (ref (Val 7))
                                                                                     x : int chain c : int chain ref
val() = c := x
                  Link (Link (
```

# **Equality**

As usual, avoid equality comparisons in code, except for some base types like int.

#### Be aware:

There is a difference between comparing cells and comparing cell contents.

# Equality

Variables of type t ref are equal iff they are bound to the same cell. Consider:

```
val c = ref 10
val d = c
val e = ref 10
```

All three variables are bound to cells containing the integer 10, so the expressions !c=!d and !c=!e both evaluate to true.

Variables c and d are aliases, so  $c=d \hookrightarrow true$ . Variable e is bound to a different cell, so  $c=e \hookrightarrow false$ .

SML allows this form of an expression:

```
(e<sub>1</sub>; e<sub>2</sub>; ...; e<sub>n</sub>)

**Observe the semi-colons** (and the parentheses)
```

SML allows this form of an expression:

$$(e_1; e_2; ...; e_n)$$

The overall expression is well-typed iff each expression  $e_i$  is well-typed. In that case, the overall type is the type of  $e_n$ :

```
(e_1; e_2; ...; e_n): t_n

if there exist types t_i such that e_i: t_i, i=1,\ldots,n.
```

SML allows this form of an expression:

$$(e_1; e_2; ...; e_n)$$

The overall expression has a value iff each expression e<sub>i</sub> has a value.

In that case, the overall expression has the value of  $e_n$ :

(e<sub>1</sub>; e<sub>2</sub>; ...; e<sub>n</sub>) 
$$\hookrightarrow$$
 v<sub>n</sub> 
$$\text{if there exist values } v_i \text{ such that } e_i \hookrightarrow v_i, \ i=1,\ldots,n.$$

SML allows this form of an expression:

$$(e_1; e_2; ...; e_n)$$

Evaluation is left-to-right.

If any e<sub>i</sub> raises an exception or loops forever, then the overall expression raises an exception or loops forever, as determined by the leftmost e<sub>i</sub> that fails to reduce to a value.

```
Example:
  let
      val c = ref 10
  in
       (print(Int.toString(!c));
                     This code creates a reference cell c,
        C)
                           prints the contents 10,
  end
                            then returns the cell.
```

What is the type of this let?

What is the value?

```
Example:
  let
      val c = ref 10
  in
       (print(Int.toString(!c));
                     This code creates a reference cell c,
        C)
                           prints the contents 10,
  end
                            then returns the cell.
```

```
What is the type of this let? What is the value? int ref ref 10
```

## Alternate implementation

```
let
   val c = ref 10
   val _ = print(Int.toString(!c))
in
   c
end
```

# Extensional Equivalence

- Reasoning about equivalence must take into account changes in reference cells.
- We define the store to be the set of accessible reference cells along with their contents.
- When evaluating code, we now should write

```
\{e ; s\} ==> \{e' ; s'\}
```

with e and e' expressions and s and s' stores.

To say e ≅ e' independent of store means that
 {e;s}==>{v;s'} and {e';s}==>{w;s'}, with v and w
 equivalent values (or both reductions raise equivalent
 exceptions with identical stores or both reductions loop
 forever with identical changes in store), for all initial stores s.

## Race Conditions

#### Consider:

```
fun deposit a n = a := !a + n
```

deposit increments the contents of cell a by n.

deposit : int ref -> int -> unit

When we see a return type of unit in a function, we understand that the function is being called for effect.

## Race Conditions

#### Consider:

```
fun deposit a n = a := !a + n
fun withdraw a n = a := !a - n
val chk = ref 100 (* bank account *)
```

## Race Conditions

#### Consider:

```
fun deposit a n = a := !a + n
fun withdraw a n = a := !a - n
val chk = ref 100 (* bank account *)
val _ = (deposit chk 50; withdraw chk 80)
```

What is the value of !chk?

Assume sequential evaluation.

# Race Conditions

#### Consider:

```
fun deposit a n = a := !a + n
fun withdraw a n = a := !a - n
val chk = ref 100 (* bank account *)
val _ = (deposit chk 50; withdraw chk 80)
```

What is the value of !chk? 70

Assume sequential evaluation.

## Race Conditions

Now assume parallel evaluation of the pair.

```
fun deposit a n = a := !a + n
fun withdraw a n = a := !a - n
val chk = ref 100
val _ = (deposit chk 50, withdraw chk 80)
What now is the value of !chk ?
```

# Race Conditions

Now assume parallel evaluation of the pair.

```
fun deposit a n = a := !a + n
fun withdraw a n = a := !a - n
val chk = ref 100
val _ = (deposit chk 50, withdraw chk 80)
```

What now is the value of !chk?

There is no definitive answer.

If deposit and withdraw happen atomically, then 70 as before. Otherwise, timing of read and write could mean 20, 70, or 150. If simultaneous writes to the underlying bits, then maybe garbage.

# Deterministic Parallelism

The previous example has multiple outcomes, determined *nondeterministically* (that means: beyond our knowledge or control).

We want deterministic outcomes.

Concerns: Sequential vs Parallel Evaluation

no mutation

Persistent vs Ephemeral Data

#### Persistent **Ephemeral** Reasoning is Sequential more complicated, **Functional** but FP is fine. programming is a good tool need to think **Parallel** about concurrency

Can include diverging code by left-to-right evaluation semantics.

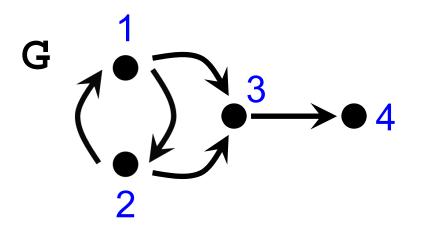
Can also include some mutation as benign effects (see subsequent slides).

# Benign Effects

A benign effect is some effect (such as mutation) that is localized within some sufficiently small chunk of code (such as a function or structure) so that external users can use the code as if it were purely functional.

Benign effects can be useful, for instance, in improving efficiency while still keeping code simple enough to analyze and prove correct.

# Example: Graph Reachability



Can get to vertex 4 from any other vertex, but cannot get to any other vertex from 4.

Let us model a graph as a function that encodes neighbors reachable by a single edge:

```
type graph = int -> int list
```

```
(*reach : graph -> int*int -> bool *)
```

reach g (x,y) is supposed to return true if y is reachable from x in g, and return false otherwise.

REQUIRE: g is total.

```
(*reach : graph -> int*int -> bool *)
fun reach (g : graph) (x,y) =
     let
         fun dfs n = (n=y) orelse
                        Perform a depth-first search.
     in
                            Current vertex is n.
                        First, check whether n is the
         dfs x
                           desired destination y.
     end
   Start the search from x initially.
```

```
(*reach : graph -> int*int -> bool *)
fun reach (g : graph) (x,y) =
     let
        fun dfs n = (n=y) orelse
                      (List.exists dfs (g n))
     in
                       Check whether y is reachable
        dfs x
                         from any of n's neighbors.
     end
```

```
Recall
```

```
List.exists: ('a -> bool) -> 'a list -> bool checks whether some element in the list satisfies the predicate.
```

```
(*reach : graph -> int*int -> bool *)
fun reach (g : graph) (x,y) =
    let
       fun dfs n = (n=y) orelse
                    (List.exists dfs (g n))
    in
       dfs x
    end
```

Issue: The depth-first search can loop forever on G.

```
(* mem: int -> int list -> bool *)
fun mem (n:int) = List.exists (fn x => n=x)

mem n L checks whether n is in list L.
```

```
(* mem: int -> int list -> bool *)
fun mem (n:int) = List.exists (fn x => n=x)

(* reachable : graph -> int*int -> bool *)
fun reachable (g:graph) (x,y) =
    let
    val visited = ref []
```

Create a reference cell that will hold a list of vertices (integers) visited during depth first search of the graph.

Initially the list is empty.

in

end

```
(* mem: int -> int list -> bool *)
fun mem (n:int) = List.exists (fn x => n=x)
(* reachable : graph -> int*int -> bool *)
fun reachable (g:graph) (x,y) =
   let
     val visited = ref []
     fun dfs n = (n=y) orelse
```

As before, the first thing **dfs** does is to check whether it has arrived at the destination **y**.

```
in

dfs x

end
```

dfs x

end

```
(* mem: int -> int list -> bool *)
fun mem (n:int) = List.exists (fn x => n=x)
(* reachable : graph -> int*int -> bool *)
fun reachable (g:graph) (x,y) =
    let
      val visited = ref []
       fun dfs n = (n=y) orelse
                   (not (mem n (!visited))
                       andalso
                      (visited := n::(!visited);
                       List.exists dfs (g n)))
    in
```

Only continue the depth first search if the current vertex **n** has *not* already been visited.

In that case, also update the visited list with **n**.

# Alternative approaches

Pass and return visited explicitly as an argument.

Use continuations with visited as an argument.

# Other Roles for Mutation

- Maintain local state in a random number generator.
- Remember stream values that have been exposed previously, so that re-exposing them does not require repeating potentially expensive computations.

(This is called *memoization*.)

#### A Random Number Generator

```
signature RANDOM =
sig
   type gen (* abstract *)
   val init : int -> gen (* REQUIRE: seed > 0 *)
  val random : gen -> int -> int
end
                           pseudo
                         random nonnegative
                  bound
                           integer less than bound
```

Reference: Paulson, *ML for the Working Programmer*, 1996, p. 108, who points to Park & Miller, *CACM*, 1988, **31**, pp.1192-1201.

#### A Random Number Generator

```
structure R :> RANDOM =
                              Reference: Paulson, ML for the
struct
                              Working Programmer, 1996, p. 108,
   type gen = real ref
                              who points to Park & Miller, CACM,
                              1988, 31, pp.1192-1201.
   val a = 16807.0
   val m = 2147483647.0
   fun next r = a*r - m*real(floor(a*r/m))
   val init = ref o real
   fun random g b = (g := next(!g);
                        floor((!g/m) * (real b)))
end
val G = R.init(12345)
val L = List.tabulate(100, fn _ => R.random G 1000)
                  pseudo
   L is a list of 100 random integers in the range [0,999].
```

Previously we had the following code inside our Stream structure:

```
fun delay d = Stream d
fun expose (Stream d) = d ()
```

Data persistence means that any and every time someone exposes a given stream, the computation d() will occur.

Let us add a hidden reference cell that remembers the result of computing d(). We will leave expose as is, and change delay.

```
fun delay d =
  let
  val cell = ref d
```

Our first observation is that we can put d in a reference cell.

```
Recall the code for expose:

fun expose (Stream d) = d()
```

That means we now need a suspension, which when forced will access the reference cell and force the function we put there:

```
in
    Stream (fn () => !cell())
end
```

```
fun delay d =
    let
       val cell = ref d
       fun memoFn () =
           let
              val r = d()
               (cell := (fn () => r);
                r)
           end
```

memoFn is a function that computes d(), remembers the result r in a suspension, puts that suspension in cell, and returns r.

```
in
    Stream (fn () => !cell())
end
```

```
fun delay d =
    let
       val cell = ref d
       fun memoFn () =
            let
               val r = d()
            in
               (cell := (fn () => r);
                r)
            end
```

We put memofn into cell, where it will sit until someone exposes the stream, at which point memofn replaces itself with (fn()=>r).

```
val _ = cell := memoFn
in
    Stream (fn () => !cell())
end
```

```
fun delay d =
    let
       val cell = ref d
       fun memoFn () =
           let
                             One can even memoize
              val r = d()
                            raised exceptions this way.
           in
               (cell := (fn () => r);
           end handle E => 🌽
                   (cell := (fn () => raise E);
                    raise E)
       val = cell := memoFn
    in
       Stream (fn () => !cell())
    end
```

```
fun delay d =
    let
       val cell = ref d
       fun memoFn () =
           let
              val r = d()
           in
              (cell := (fn () => r);
               r)
           end handle E =>
                   (cell := (fn () => raise E);
                    raise E)
       val = cell := memoFn
    in
       Stream (fn () => !cell())
    end
```

# That is all.

Have a good weekend.

See you Tuesday, when we will talk about context free grammars.