

Mutation
COS 326
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Reasoning about Mutable State is Hard

mutable set

```
insert i s1;
f x;
member i s1
```

immutable set

```
let s1 = insert i s0 in
f x;
member i s1
```

Is member i s1 == true? ...

- When s1 is mutable, one must look at f to determine if it modifies s1.
- Worse, one must often solve the aliasing problem.
- Worse, in a concurrent setting, one must look at every other function that any other thread may be executing to see if it modifies s1.

Thus far...

We have considered the (almost) purely functional subset of OCaml.

We've had a few side effects: printing & raising exceptions.

Two reasons for this emphasis:

- Reasoning about functional code is easier.
 - Both formal reasoning
 - equationally, using the substitution model
 - and informal reasoning
 - Data structures are *persistent*.
 - They don't change we build new ones and let the garbage collector reclaim the unused old ones.
 - Hence, any invariant you prove true stays true.
 - e.g., 3 is a member of set S.
- To convince you that you don't need side effects for many things where you previously thought you did.
 - Programming with basic immutable data like ints, pairs, lists is easy.
 - types do a lot of testing for you!
 - do not fear recursion!
 - You can implement expressive, highly reuseable functional data structures like polymorphic 2-3 trees or dictionaries or stacks or queues or sets or expressions or programming languages with reasonable space and time.

But alas...

Purely functional code is pointless.

- The whole reason we write code is to have some effect on the world.
- For example, the OCaml top-level loop prints out your result.
 - Without that printing (a side effect), how would you know that your functions computed the right thing?

Some algorithms or data structures need mutable state.

- Hash-tables have (essentially) constant-time access and update.
 - The best functional dictionaries have either:
 - logarithmic access & logarithmic update
 - constant access & linear update
 - constant update & linear access
 - Don't forget that we give up something for this:
 - we can't go back and look at previous versions of the dictionary. We can
 do that in a functional setting.
- Robinson's unification algorithm
 - A critical part of the OCaml type-inference engine.
 - Also used in other kinds of program analyses.
- Depth-first search, more ...

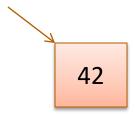
OCAML MUTABLE REFERENCES

References

- New type: t ref
 - Think of it as a pointer to a box that holds a t value.
 - The contents of the box can be read or written.

References

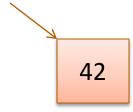
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 - The contents of the box can be read or written.
- To create a fresh box: ref 42
 - allocates a new box, initializes its contents to 42, and returns a pointer:



- ref 42 : int ref

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- New type: t ref
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- To create a fresh box: ref 42
 - allocates a new box, initializes its contents to 42, and returns a pointer:



- ref 42 : int ref
- To read the contents: !r
 - if r points to a box containing 42, then return 42.
 - if r : t ref then !r : t
- To write the contents: r := 5
 - updates the box that r points to so that it contains 5.
 - if r : t ref then <math>r := 5 : unit

Example

Another Example

```
let c = ref 0 ;;

let next() =
  let v = !c in
  (c := v+1 ; v)
```

Another Example

```
let c = ref 0

let next() =
  let v = !c in
  (c := v+1 ; v)
```

```
If e1 : unit
and e2 : t then
(e1 ; e2) : t
```

You can also write it like this:

```
let c = ref 0

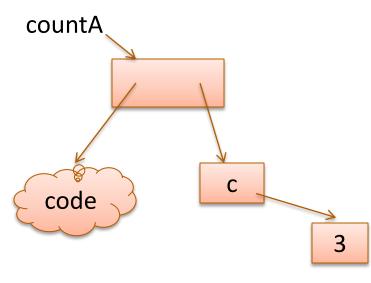
let next() =
  let v = !c in
  let _ = c := v+1 in
  v
```

Another Idiom

Global Mutable Reference

```
let c = ref 0

let next () : int =
  let v = !c in
  (c := v+1 ; v)
```



Mutable Reference Captured in Closure

```
let counter () =
  let c = ref 0 in
  fun () ->
    let v = !c in
    (c := v+1 ; v)
let countA = counter() in
let countB = counter() in
countA(); (* 0 *)
countA(); (* 1 *)
countB(); (* 0 *)
countB(); (* 1 *)
countA(); (* 2 *)
```

Imperative loops

```
(* sum of 0 .. n *)
let sum (n:int) =
  let s = ref 0 in
  let current = ref n in
 while !current > 0 do
    s := !s + !current;
    current := !current - 1
  done;
  !s
```

```
(* print n .. 0 *)
let count down (n:int) =
  for i = n downto 0 do
   print int i;
   print newline()
 done
(* print 0 .. n *)
let count up (n:int) =
  for i = 0 to n do
   print int i;
   print newline()
 done
```

Imperative loops?

```
(* print n .. 0 *)

let count_down (n:int) =
  for i = n downto 0 do
    print_int i;
    print_newline()
  done
```

```
(* for i=n downto 0 do f i *)
let rec for down
         (n : int)
         (f : int -> unit)
          : unit =
  if n \ge 0 then
   (f n; for down (n-1) f)
  else
   ()
let count down (n:int) =
  for down n (fun i ->
   print int i;
    print newline()
```

REFS AND MODULES

Types and References

Concrete, first-order type tells you a lot about a data structure:

• int ==> immutable

int ref ==> mutable

int * int ==> immutable

int * (int ref) ==> 1st component immutable, 2nd mutable

• ... etc

What about higher-order types?

int -> int ==> the function can't be changed

==> what happens when we run it?

What about abstract types?

stack, queue? stack * queue?

Functional Stacks

```
module type STACK =
  sig
    type 'a stack
    val empty : unit -> 'a stack
    val push : 'a -> 'a stack -> 'a stack
    val peek : 'a stack -> 'a option
  end
```

Functional Stacks

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module type STACK =
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  end
```

A functional interface takes in arguments, analyzes them, and produces new results

```
module type IMP STACK =
  sig
    type 'a stack
    val empty : unit -> 'a stack
    val push : 'a -> 'a stack -> unit
    val peek : 'a stack -> 'a option
  end
```

```
module type IMP_STACK =
    sig
    type 'a stack
    val empty : unit -> 'a stack
    val push : 'a -> 'a stack -> unit
    val peek : 'a stack -> 'a opti
    ...
```

end

When you see "unit" as the return type, you know the function is being executed for its side effects. (Like void in C/C++/Java.)

```
module type IMP STACK =
  sig
    type 'a stack
    val empty : unit -> 'a stack
    val push : 'a -> 'a stack -> unit
    val peek : 'a stack -> 'a option
    val pop : 'a stack -> 'a option
  end
```

Unfortunately, we can't always tell from the type that there are side-effects going on. It's a good idea to document them explicitly if the user can perceive them.

```
module type IMP STACK =
  sig
    type 'a stack
    val empty : unit -> 'a stack
    val push : 'a -> 'a stack -> unit
    val peek : 'a stack -> 'a option
    val pop : 'a stack -> 'a option
  end
```

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Sometimes, one uses references inside a module but the data structures have functional (persistent) semantics

```
module type IMP_STACK =
    sig
    type 'a stack
    val empty : unit -> 'a stack
    val push : 'a -> 'a stack ->
    val peek : 'a stack -> 'a opt
    val pop : 'a stack -> 'a opt
end
This is a terrific
    way to use
references in ML.
Look for these
opportunities

val pop : 'a stack -> 'a option
end
```

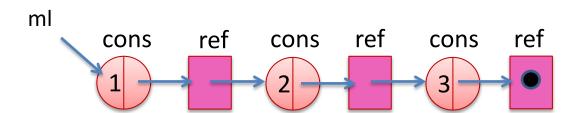
Unfortunately, we can't always tell from the type that there are side-effects going on. It's a good idea to document them explicitly if the user can perceive them.

Sometimes, one uses references inside a module but the data structures have functional (persistent) semantics

```
module ImpStack : IMP STACK =
  struct
    type 'a stack = ('a list) ref
    let empty() : 'a stack = ref []
    let push(x:'a) (s:'a stack) : unit =
       s := x :: (!s)
    let pop(s:'a stack) : 'a option =
      match !s with
      | [] -> None
      | h::t -> (s := t ; Some h)
  end
```

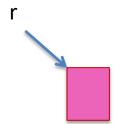
```
module ImpStack : IMP STACK =
  struct
     type 'a stack = ('a list) ref
     let empty() : 'a stack
                                    Note: We don't have to
     let push (x:'a) (s:'a st
                                   make everything mutable.
        s := x :: (!s)
                                    The list is an immutable
                                   data structure stored in a
                                     single mutable cell.
     let pop(s:'a stack)
       match !s with
        | [] -> None
        | h::t -> (s := t ; Some h)
  end
```

Fully Mutable Lists

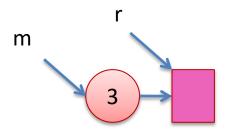


```
type 'a mlist =
  Nil | Cons of 'a * ('a mlist ref)
let rec mlength(m:'a mlist) : int =
  match m with
  | Nil -> 0
  | Cons(h,t) \rightarrow 1 + mlength(!t)
let r = ref Nil ;;
let m = Cons(3,r) ;;
r := m ;;
mlength m ;;
```

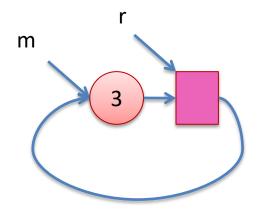
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mlength m
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let r = ref Nil in
let m = Cons(3,r) in
r := m ;
mlength m
```



Add mutability judiciously

Two types:

```
type 'a very_mutable_list =
  Nil
| Cons of 'a * ('a very_mutable_list ref)
```

```
type 'a less_mutable_list = 'a list ref
```

The first makes cyclic lists possible, the second doesn't

- the second preemptively avoids certain kinds of errors.
- often called a correct-by-construction design

Is it possible to avoid all state?

Yes! (in single-threaded programs)

Pass in old values to functions; return new values from functions ...
 but this isn't necessarily the most efficient thing to do

Consider the difference between our functional stacks and our imperative ones:

```
- fnl push : 'a -> 'a stack -> 'a stack
```

- imp push : 'a -> 'a stack -> unit

In general, we could pass a dictionary into and out of every function.

- That dictionary would map "addresses" to "values"
 - it would record the value of every reference
- But then accessing or updating a reference takes O(lg n) time.
- ... (wonder how bad the constant factors would be, too) ...

MUTABLE RECORDS AND ARRAYS

Records with Mutable Fields

OCaml records with mutable fields:

```
type 'a queue1 =
 {front : 'a list ref;
  back : 'a list ref }
type 'a queue2 =
 {mutable front : 'a list;
  mutable back : 'a list}
let q1 = \{front = [1]; back = [2]\} in
let q2 = \{front = [1]; back = [2]\} in
let x = q2.front @ q2.back in
q2.front < - [3]
```

In fact: type 'a ref = {mutable contents : 'a}

Mutable Arrays

For arrays, we have:

- A. (i)
 - to read the ith element of the array A
- A.(i) < -42
 - to write the ith element of the array A

• Array.make 42 'x' creates an array of length 42 with all elements initialized to the character 'x'.

See the reference manual for more operations.

www.caml.inria.fr/pub/docs/manual-ocaml/libref/Array.html

Factoring!

```
let factor n =
  let s = int of float (sqrt (float of int n)) in
  let rec f i =
    if i<=s then</pre>
      if n \mod i = 0 then
      Some i
     else
      f(i+1)
    else
    None
   in f 2
```

Factoring!

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   if i<=s then
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   else
    None
   in f 2
```

```
factor 77 = Some 7
```

factor 97 = None

Caveats

```
let factor n =
  let s = int_of_float (sqrt (float_of_int n)) in
  let rec f i =
    if i<=s then
      if n mod i = 0 then
        Some i
    else
      f (i+1)</pre>
```

Caveat 1:

Many applications of prime numbers are for many-bit (500-bit, 2000-bit) numbers; OCaml ints are 31-bit or 63-bit, so you'd want a version of this for the bignums

Caveat 2:

This primitive factoring algorithm, already obsolete 2000 years ago, is not what you'd really use. Modern algorithms based on fancy number theory are much faster.

Caveat 3:
Even the fancy
number-theory algs
take
superpolynomial
time (as function of
the number of bits
in n)

Memoized factoring

```
let table = Hashtbl.create 1000

let memofactor n =
  try Hashtbl.find table n
  with Not_found ->
    let p = factor n
  in Hashtbl.add table n p; p
```

memofactor 77 = Some 7

memofactor 97 = None

Encapsulating the side effects

```
struct
let table = Hashtbl.create 1000

let memofactor n =
   try Hashtbl.find table n
   with Not_found ->
    let p = factor n
    in Hashtbl.add table n p; p

let factor n = memofactor n
end
```

```
sig
  val factor : int -> int
end
```

The table is hidden inside the function closure.

There's no way for the client to access it, or know it's there.

We can pretend memofactor is a pure function.

OCaml Objects

```
class point =
  object
   val mutable x = 0
  method get_x = x
  method move d = x <- x + d
  end;;</pre>
```

```
let p = new point in
let x = p#get in

p#move 4;

x + p#get (* 0 + 4 *)
```

http://caml.inria.fr/pub/docs/manual-ocaml-4.00/manual005.html

Xavier Leroy (OCaml inventor):

- No one ever uses objects in OCaml!
- Adding objects to OCaml was one of the best decisions I ever made!

SUMMARY

Summary: How/when to use state?

- A complicated question!
- In general, I try to write the functional version first.
 - e.g., prototype
 - don't have to worry about sharing and updates
 - don't have to worry about race conditions
 - reasoning is easy (the substitution model is valid!)
- Sometimes you find you can't afford it for efficiency reasons.
 - example: routing tables need to be fast in a switch
 - constant time lookup, update (hash-table)
- When I do use state, I try to encapsulate it behind an interface.
 - try to reduce the number of error conditions a client can see
 - correct-by-construction design
 - module implementer must think explicitly about sharing and invariants
 - write these down, write assertions to test them
 - if encapsulated in a module, these tests can be localized
 - most of your code should still be functional

Summary

Mutable data structures can lead to efficiency improvements.

e.g., Hash tables, memoization, depth-first search

But they are *much* harder to get right, so don't jump the gun

- updating in one place may have an effect on other places.
- writing and enforcing invariants becomes more important.
 - e.g., assertions we used in the queue example
 - why more important? because the types do less ...
- cycles in data (other than functions) can't happen until we introduce refs.
 - must write operations much more carefully to avoid looping
 - more cases to deal with and the compiler doesn't help you!
- we haven't even gotten to the multi-threaded part.

So use refs when you must, but try hard to avoid it.