

# Elements of Programming Languages

## Lecture 14: References, Arrays, and Resources

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## References

- In  $L_{\text{While}}$ , all variables are **mutable** and **global**
- This makes programming fairly tedious and it's easy to make mistakes
- There's also no way to create new variables (short of coming up with a new variable name)
- Can we smoothly add mutable state side-effects to  $L_{\text{Poly}}$ ?
- Can we provide imperative features within a mostly-functional language?

## Overview

- Over the final few lectures we are exploring *cross-cutting* design issues
- Today we consider a way to incorporate mutable variables/assignment into a functional setting:
  - References
  - Interaction with subtyping and polymorphism
  - Resources, more generally

## References

- Consider the following language  $L_{\text{Ref}}$  extending  $L_{\text{Poly}}$ :

$$e ::= \dots \mid \text{ref}(e) \mid !e \mid e_1 := e_2 \mid e_1; e_2$$

$$\tau ::= \dots \mid \text{ref}[\tau]$$

- Idea:  $\text{ref}(e)$  evaluates  $e$  to  $v$  and creates a **new reference cell** containing  $v$
- $!e$  evaluates  $e$  to a reference and **looks up its value**
- $e_1 := e_2$  evaluates  $e_1$  to a reference cell and  $e_2$  to a value and **assigns** the value to the reference cell.
- $e_1; e_2$  evaluates  $e_1$ , ignores value, then evaluates  $e_2$

## References: Types

 $\Gamma \vdash e : \tau$  for  $L_{\text{Ref}}$ 

$$\frac{\Gamma \vdash e : \tau}{\Gamma \vdash \text{ref}(e) : \text{ref}[\tau]} \quad \frac{\Gamma \vdash e : \text{ref}[\tau]}{\Gamma \vdash !e : \tau}$$

$$\frac{\Gamma \vdash e_1 : \text{ref}[\tau] \quad \Gamma \vdash e_2 : \tau}{\Gamma \vdash e_1 := e_2 : \text{unit}} \quad \frac{\Gamma \vdash e_1 : \tau' \quad \Gamma \vdash e_2 : \tau}{\Gamma \vdash e_1; e_2 : \tau}$$

- $\text{ref}(e)$  creates a reference of type  $\tau$  if  $e : \tau$
- $!e$  gets a value of type  $\tau$  if  $e : \text{ref}[\tau]$
- $e_1 := e_2$  updates reference  $e_1 : \text{ref}[\tau]$  with value  $e_2 : \tau$ . Its return value is  $()$ .
- $e_1; e_2$  evaluates  $e_1$ , ignores the resulting value, and evaluates  $e_2$ .



## Interpreting references in Scala using Ref

```

case class Ref(e: Expr) extends Expr
case class Deref(e: Expr) extends Expr
case class Assign(e: Expr, e2: Expr) extends Expr
case class Cell(l: Ref[Value]) extends Value

def eval(env: Env[Value], e: Expr) = e match { ...
  case Ref(e)          => Cell(new Ref(eval(env,e)))
  case Deref(e)       => eval(env,e) match {
    case Cell(r) => r.get
  }
  case Assign(e1,e2) => eval(env,e1) match {
    case Cell(r) => r.set(eval(env,e2))
  }
}

```



## References in Scala

Recall that `var` in Scala makes a variable mutable:

```

class Ref[A](val x: A) {
  private var a = x
  def get = a
  def set(y: A) = { a = y }
}

scala> val x = new Ref[Int](1)
x: Ref[Int] = Ref@725bef66
scala> x.get
res3: Int = 1
scala> x.set(12)
scala> x.get
res5: Int = 12

```



## Imperative Programming and Procedures

- Once we add references to a functional language (e.g.  $L_{\text{Poly}}$ ), we can use function definitions and lambda-abstraction to define *procedures*
- Basically, a procedure is just a function with return type `unit`

```

val x = new Ref(42)
def incrBy(n: Int): Unit = {
  x.set(x.get + n)
}

```

- Such a procedure does not return a value, and is only executed for its “side effects” on references
- Using the same idea, we can embed all of the constructs of  $L_{\text{While}}$  in  $L_{\text{Ref}}$  (see tutorial)



## References: Semantics

- Small steps  $\sigma, e \mapsto \sigma', e'$ , where  $\sigma : \text{Loc} \rightarrow \text{Value}$ . “in initial state  $\sigma$ , expression  $e$  can step to  $e'$  with state  $\sigma'$ .”
- What does  $\text{ref}(e)$  evaluate to? A *pointer or memory cell location*,  $\ell \in \text{Loc}$

$$v ::= \dots \mid \ell$$

- These special values only appear during evaluation.

$\sigma, e \mapsto \sigma', e'$  for  $L_{\text{Ref}}$

$$\frac{l \notin \text{locs}(\sigma)}{\sigma, \text{ref}(v) \mapsto \sigma[l := v], l}$$

$$\frac{}{\sigma, !l \mapsto \sigma, \sigma(l)} \quad \frac{}{\sigma, l := v \mapsto \sigma[l := v], ()}$$

## References: Semantics

- Finally, we need rules that evaluate inside the reference constructs themselves:

$\sigma, e \mapsto \sigma', e'$

$$\frac{\sigma, e \mapsto \sigma', e'}{\sigma, \text{ref}(e) \mapsto \sigma', \text{ref}(e')} \quad \frac{\sigma, e \mapsto \sigma', e'}{\sigma, !e \mapsto \sigma', !e'}$$

$$\frac{\sigma, e_1 \mapsto \sigma', e'_1}{\sigma, e_1 := e_2 \mapsto \sigma', e'_1 := e_2} \quad \frac{\sigma, e_2 \mapsto \sigma', e'_2}{\sigma, v_1 := e_2 \mapsto \sigma', v_1 := e'_2}$$

- Notice again that we need to allow for updates to  $\sigma$ .
- For example, to evaluate  $\text{ref}(\text{ref}(42))$

## References: Semantics

- We also need to change all of the existing small-step rules to pass  $\sigma$  through...

$\sigma, e \mapsto \sigma', e'$

$$\frac{\sigma, e_1 \mapsto \sigma', e'_1}{\sigma, e_1 \oplus e_2 \mapsto \sigma', e'_1 \oplus e_2} \quad \frac{\sigma, e_2 \mapsto \sigma', e'_2}{\sigma, v_1 \oplus e_2 \mapsto \sigma', v_1 \oplus e'_2}$$

$$\frac{}{\sigma, v_1 + v_2 \mapsto \sigma, v_1 +_{\mathbb{N}} v_2} \quad \frac{}{\sigma, v_1 \times v_2 \mapsto \sigma, v_1 \times_{\mathbb{N}} v_2}$$

⋮

- Subexpressions may contain references (leading to allocation or updates), so we need to allow  $\sigma$  to change in any subexpression evaluation step.

## References: Examples

- Simple example

$$\text{let } r = \text{ref}(42) \text{ in } r := 17; !r$$

$$\mapsto [l := 42], \text{let } r = l \text{ in } r := 17; !r$$

$$\mapsto [l := 42], l := 17; !l$$

$$\mapsto [l := 17], !l \mapsto [l := 17], 17$$

- Aliasing/copying

$$\text{let } r = \text{ref}(42) \text{ in } (\lambda x. \lambda y. x := !y + 1) r r$$

$$\mapsto [l = 42], \text{let } r = l \text{ in } (\lambda x. \lambda y. x := !y + 1) r r$$

$$\mapsto [l = 42], (\lambda x. \lambda y. x := !y + 1) l l$$

$$\mapsto [l = 42], (\lambda y. l := !y + 1) l$$

$$\mapsto [l = 42], l := !l + 1 \mapsto [l = 42], l := 42 + 1$$

$$\mapsto [l = 42], l := 43 \mapsto [l = 43], ()$$

## Something's missing

- We didn't give a rule for  $e_1; e_2$ . It's pretty straightforward (exercise!)
- actually,  $e_1; e_2$  is *definable* as

$$e_1; e_2 \iff \text{let } \_ = e_1 \text{ in } e_2$$

where  $\_$  stands for any variable not already in use in  $e_1, e_2$ .

- Why?
  - To evaluate  $e_1; e_2$ , we evaluate  $e_1$  for its side effects, ignore the result, and then evaluate  $e_2$  for its value (plus any side effects)
  - Evaluating  $\text{let } \_ = e_1 \text{ in } e_2$  first evaluates  $e_1$ , then binds the resulting value to some variable not used in  $e_2$ , and finally evaluates  $e_2$ .



## Arrays

- Arrays generalize references to allow getting and setting by *index* (i.e. a reference is a one-element array)

$$e ::= \dots \mid \text{array}(e_1, e_2) \mid e_1[e_2] \mid e_1[e_2] := e_3$$

$$\tau ::= \dots \mid \text{array}[\tau]$$

- $\text{array}(n, \text{init})$  creates an array of  $n$  elements, initialized to  $\text{init}$
- $\text{arr}[i]$  gets the  $i$ th element;  $\text{arr}[i] := v$  sets the  $i$ th element to  $v$
- This introduces the potential problem of *out-of-bounds accesses*
- Typing, evaluation rules for arrays: exercise



## Reference semantics: observations

- Notice that any subexpression can create, read or assign a reference:

$$\text{let } r = \text{ref}(1) \text{ in } (r := 1000; 3) + !r$$

- This means that evaluation order really matters!
- Do we get 4 or 1003 from the above?
  - With left-to-right order,  $r := 1000$  is evaluated first, then  $!r$ , so we get 1003
  - If we evaluated right-to-left, then  $!r$  would evaluate to 1, before assigning  $r := 1000$ , so we would get 4
- However, the small-step rules clarify that existing constructs evaluate “as usual”, with no side-effects.



## References and subtyping

- Consider  $\text{Integer} <: \text{Object}$ ,  $\text{String} <: \text{Object}$
- Suppose we allowed *contravariant* subtyping for  $\text{Ref}$ , i.e.  $\text{Ref}[A]$
- which is obviously silly: we shouldn't expect a reference to  $\text{Object}$  to be castable to  $\text{String}$ .
- We could then do the following:

---

```
val x: Ref[Object] = new Ref(new Integer(42))
// String <: Object,
// hence Ref[Object] <: Ref[String]
x.get.length() // unsound! x: Ref[Int]
```

---



## References and subtyping

- Consider `Int <: Object, String <: Object`
- Suppose we allowed *covariant* subtyping for `Ref`, i.e. `Ref [+A]`
- We could then do the following:

---

```
val x: Ref[String] = new Ref(new String("asdf"))
def bad(y: Ref[Object]) = y.set(new Integer(42))
bad(x) // x still has type Ref[String]!
x.get.length() // unsound!
```

---

- Therefore, mutable parameterized types like `Ref` must be *invariant* (neither covariant nor contravariant)
- (Java got this wrong, for built-in array types!)

## Resources

- References, arrays illustrate a common *resource* pattern:
  - Memory cells (references, arrays, etc.)
  - Files/file handles
  - Database, network connections
  - Locks
- Usage pattern: allocate/open/acquire, use, deallocate/close/release
- Key issues:
  - How to ensure proper use? (e.g. all array accesses are in-bounds)
  - How to ensure eventual deallocation?
  - How to avoid attempted use after deallocation?

## References and polymorphism [non-examinable]

- A related problem: references can violate type soundness in a language with Hindley-Milner style type inference and let-bound polymorphism (e.g. ML, OCaml, F#)

```
let r = ref (fn x => x) in
r := (fn x => x + 1);
!r(true)
```

- `r` initially gets inferred type  $\forall A. A \rightarrow A$
- We then assign `r` to be a function of type `int  $\rightarrow$  int`
- and then apply `r` to a boolean!
- Accepted solution: the *value restriction* - the right-hand side of a polymorphic `let` must be a value.
- (e.g., in Scala, polymorphism is only introduced via function definitions)

## Design choices regarding references and pointers

- Some languages (notably C/C++) distinguish between type  $\tau$  and type  $\tau^*$  (“pointer to  $\tau$ ”), i.e. a mutable reference
- Other languages, notably Java, consider many types (e.g. classes) to be “reference types”, i.e., all variables of that type are really mutable (and nullable!) references.
- In Scala, variables introduced by `val` are immutable, while using `var` they can be assigned.
- In Haskell, as a pure, functional language, all variables are immutable; references and mutable state are available but must be handled specially

## Safe allocation and use of resources

- In a strongly typed language, we can ensure safe resource use by ensuring all expressions of type `ref[ $\tau$ ]` are properly *initialized*
- C/C++ does **not** do this: a pointer  `$\tau^*$`  may be “uninitialized” (not point to an allocated  `$\tau$`  block). Must be initialized separately via `malloc` or other operations.
- Java (sort of) does this: an expression of reference type  `$\tau$`  is a reference to an allocated  `$\tau$`  (or null!)
- Scala, Haskell don't allow “silent” null values, and so a  `$\tau$`  is always an allocated structure
- Moreover, a `ref[ $\tau$ ]` is always a reference to an allocated, mutable  `$\tau$`

## Main approaches to deallocation

- C/C++: explicit deallocation (`free`) must be done by the programmer.
  - (This is very hard to get right, and causes many bugs.)
- Java, Scala, Haskell use *garbage collection*. It is the runtime's job to decide when it is safe to deallocate resources.
  - This makes life much easier for the programmer, but requires a much more sophisticated implementation, and complicates optimization/performance tuning
- Lexical scoping or exception handling works well for ensuring deallocation in certain common cases (e.g. files, locks, connections)
- Other approaches include reference counting, regions, etc.

## Safe deallocation of resources?

- Unfortunately, types are not as helpful in enforcing safe deallocation.
- One problem: forgetting to deallocate (*resource leaks*). Leads to poor performance or run-time failure if resources exhausted.
- Another problem: deallocating the same resource more than once (*double free*), or trying to use it after it's been deallocated
- A major reason is *aliasing*: copies of references to allocated resources can propagate to unpredictable parts of the program
- Advanced uses of types (cf. guest lecture on Rust) can help with this, but remains an active research topic...

## Summary

- We continued to explore design considerations that affect many aspects of a language
- Today:
  - references and mutability, in general
  - interaction with subtyping
  - and polymorphism [non-examinable]
  - some observations about other forms of resources and the “allocate/use/deallocate” pattern