Modules

Concepts of Programming Languages Lecture 10

Outline

Do some practice problems in preparation for the midterm

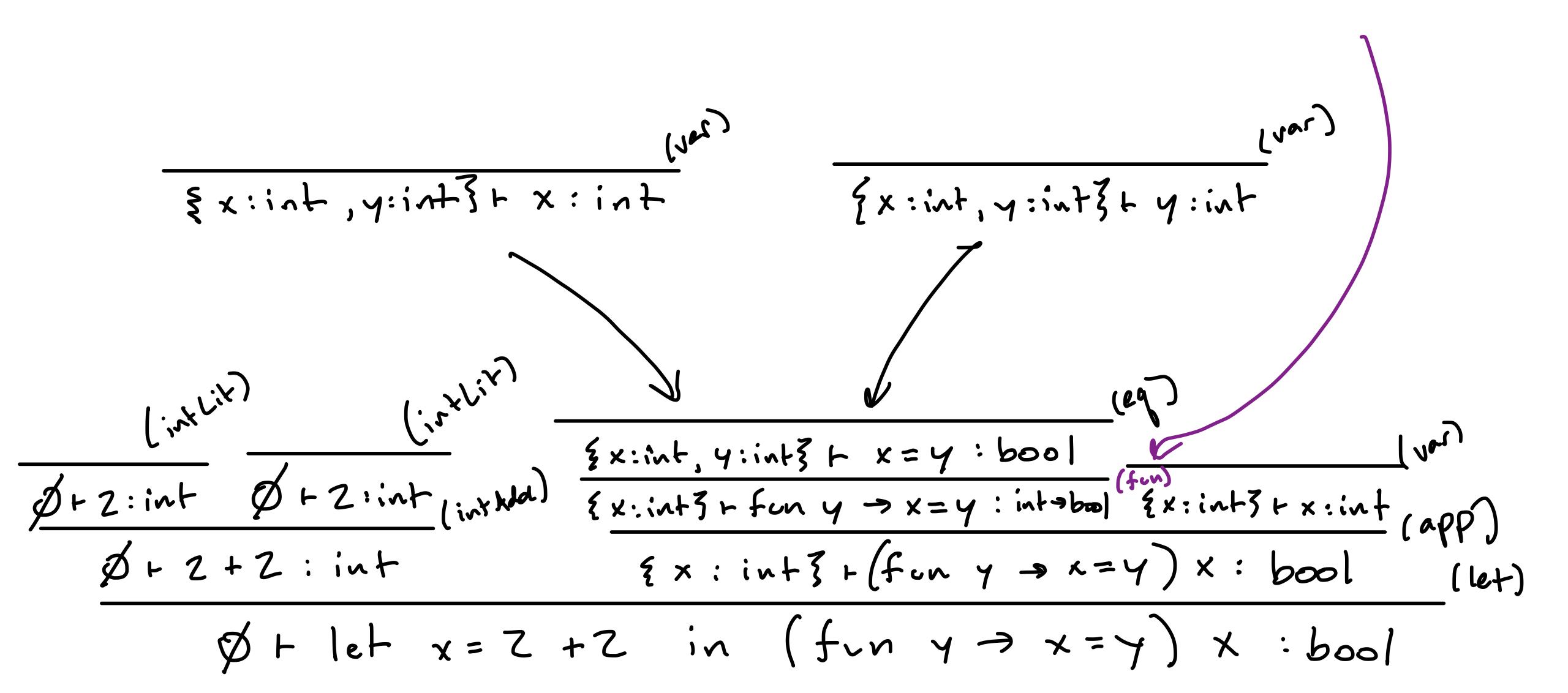
Discuss modules a way to make abstract and reusable code

Practice Problem

```
\emptyset \vdash \text{let } x = 2 + 2 \text{ in (fun } y \rightarrow x = y) \ x : \text{bool}
\text{let } x = 2 + 2 \text{ in (fun } y \rightarrow x = y) \ x \Downarrow \top
```

Give derivations of each of the above judgments

(fun)



$$[4/x]((fun y \Rightarrow x=y) \times)$$

$$[4/y](4=y)$$

$$\frac{14/4}{4=4} \frac{14/4}{4=4} \frac{14$$

Extra practice:

Another Practice Problems implement with budight

- Dimplement nith fobl-left
- Dimplement tail recursisely

Implement the function

where **filter_op f l** is the output of **f** on those elements of **l** which satisfy **f** f(1,1); (2,3); (-4,-4); (7,2)] = [2; -8]

let filter_op (file= > 6000) +c) let rec es l = match l with 1 [] (x,y) :: X S -> let (6,c) = f x y in then C:: go xs else go xs in gol

match $f \times y$ with $(b,c) \rightarrow ...$

Modular Programming

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1. Namespaces: a way of separate coding into logical units

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module Interpreter = struct
  let type_check = ...
  let eval = ...
end
(1)
```

Modules attempt to capture multiple programming patterns with a single construct:

- 1. Namespaces: a way of separate coding into logical units
- 2. Abstraction/Encapsulation: a way of abstracting away implementation details and organizing core functionality (e.g., of a data structure)

```
module Interpreter = struct
  let type_check = ...
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 module Stack = struct
   type 'a t = 'a list
   let push x s = x :: s
   let pop s = match s with
      [] -> None
     x :: xs \rightarrow Some (x, xs)
 end
              (2)
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Modules attempt to capture multiple programming patterns with a single construct:

- 1. Namespaces: a way of separate coding into logical units
- 2. Abstraction/Encapsulation: a way of abstracting away implementation details and organizing core functionality (e.g., of a data structure)
- 3. Code Reuse: a way to write general code that can be instantiated in different settings

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```
module Foo = struct
let double (x : int) : int = x + x

let is_whitespace (c : char) =
   List.mem c [' '; '\n'; '\t'; '\r']

let version = 225

exception MyException
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```

A structure is a collection of definitions used to define a module

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Structures are *not* first-class values, we *must* use the **module** keyword when defining a structure

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We can put anything in a structure that we can put in a standalone .ml file (and vice versa, more on this later)

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```
module type F00 =
   sig
   val double : int -> int
   val is_whitespace : char -> bool
   val version : int
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   end
```

A **signature** is a collection of specifications

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A specification is a name together with a type

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A module **implements** a signature if it's defined as a structure which has the values required by the signature

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The **module** keyword is like the **let** keyword except that the RHS of the

"=" must be a structure or another module

```
module ModuleName : SIG_NAME = struct module L = List

ieh war val_name1 : ty = ...

ieh war val_name2 : ty = ...

end

module L = List

module S = String
```

Module names are usually CamelCase and module types in SCREAMING_SNAKE

The inner part of the struct is anything we could write in a .ml file

The **module** keyword is like the **let** keyword except that the RHS of the "=" must be a structure *or another module*

Trick: We can write shorthand names for module names we use frequently

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foo.ml

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val double : int -> int

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foo.mli

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In most cases, OCaml infers the signature of a given module (the annotation is optional)

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In fact, we've been defining modules the entire time: every file defines a module, whose name is the same as the filename (capitalized)

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In fact, we've been defining modules the entire time: every file defines a module, whose name is the same as the filename (capitalized)

We can make signatures of files explicit with .mli files

Working with Modules

```
module type F00 =
   sig
   val double : int -> int
   val is_whitespace : char -> bool
   val version : int
   exception MyException
   end
```

```
let check c =
  if Foo.version > 300 && Foo.is_whitespace c
  then "okay"
  else "not okay"
```

Once a module is defined, we can use values defined therein by dot notation

(This should feel somewhat familiar, again, we've been working with modules this whole time)

```
open Foo
```

```
let check c =
  if version > 300 && is_whitespace c
  then "okay"
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let check c =
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We can bring all definitions in a module into scope with the open keyword

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Caution: Do this sparingly, it's like **import** * except worse because there's no overloading in OCaml

open Foo

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We can bring all definitions in a module into scope with the open keyword

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If there are multiple definition of the function, the most recent open prevails

.(...) Syntax

It's possible to parenthesize expressions after the dot notation!

This will evaluate the expression as if the module was opened

demo

(smart/short constructors)

Encapsulation

Modules and Structural Subtyping

A structure needs to implement *every* value in a signature, but it can also implement *extra* values

If we use a module constraint on a definition, we cannot access those extra values

```
module type BAR = sig
 val bar : int
end
module Foo : BAR = struct
  let foo = "twenty two"
  let bar = 22
end
let = assert (Foo.bar = 22)
(* let = assert (Foo.foo =
"twenty two") *)
```

Modules and Structural Subtyping

A module type S is a subtype of T if S is a superset of T

Said another way: anything that implements S also implements T

Note: We can write (Mod : MOD_TY) to "type-check" the module Mod

```
module type S = sig
 val a : int
 val b : int
end
module type T = sig
 val b : int
end
module ImplS : S = struct
 let a = 0
  let b = 1
end
module ImplT : T = struct
 let b = 2
end
module = (ImplS : T)
(* module _ = (ImplT : S) *)
```

Private vs. Public Definitions

This gives us a simple way to distinguish between private and public definitions of a module:

- » Write a signature with gives an interface for the given module ("interface" is the "i" in .mli)
- » Use module constraints to force only those functions to be "visible" to the user

demo (private definitions)

Functional Data Structures

Abstract Types

```
module type S = sig
  type t
  type 'a t_param
  val op : t -> t -> t
  val op_param : 'a t_param -> 'a t_param -> 'a t_param
end
```

We can also define abstract types in modules

This is an extension of "private definitions" to include types

It allows us to define structures which are *type agnostic* to the "outside world"

```
module type LIST_STACK = sig
  type 'a stack
  val empty : 'a stack
  val push : 'a -> 'a stack -> 'a stack
  val pop : 'a stack -> 'a stack
end
```

```
module type LIST_STACK = sig
  type 'a stack
  val empty : 'a stack
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So we can define modules which expose an abstract interface, without exposing the data representation

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So we can define modules which expose an abstract interface, without exposing the data representation

This allows us to "swap out" our stack type without affecting any code which depends on the module

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```

So we can define modules which expose an abstract interface, without exposing the data representation

This allows us to "swap out" our stack type without affecting any code which depends on the module

This is just good abstraction: don't expose the low-level details unless it's necessary

Abstract Types are Opaque

```
module ListStack : LIST_STACK = struct
  type 'a stack = 'a list
  let empty = []
  let push x xs = x :: xs
  let pop = List.tl
end

let x = ListStack.(empty |> push 1 |> push 2)
  (* let x = 3 :: x *)
```

We can't make *any* assumptions about an abstract type if we don't expose it

Our code must still work if the abstract type changes

Important: This is not OOP

```
module ListStack : LIST_STACK = struct
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end

let x = ListStack.(empty |> push 1 |> push 2)
  (* let x = 3 :: x *)
```

A module is not the same thing as a class, from which objects are instantiated (i.e., there is no new constructor)

Functions in structures are not *methods* of a given type of object (and there's still no mutability)

demo (integer sets)

Advanced: Module Functors

High Level

```
module type A = sig
  val a : int
end

module B (ImplA : A) = struct
  let b = ImplA.a
end
```

We can parameterize modules by other modules

So the definitions in one module can depend on the implementation of another module

A Common Pattern

```
module type Set = sig
  type 'a t
  val empty : 'a t
  val single : 'a -> 'a t
  val union : 'a t -> 'a t -> 'a t
end
```

A **set** data structure can be made more efficient if we can assume that its elements are *orderable* (so that we can use something like a binary tree)

But how do we require that the keys are orderable?

```
(without (<) for reasons I won't get into)
```

A Common Pattern

```
module type Orderable = sig
   type t
   val compare : t -> t -> int
end

module type Set = functor (E: Orderable) -> sig
   type t
   val empty : t
   val single : E.t -> t
   val union : t -> t -> t
end
```

We parameterize our **Set** module by an **Orderable** module which ensures that the underlying elements are *orderable*

Because of structural subtyping, we can parametrize by any type that at least implements compare

Why do we care?

```
module VarSet = Set.Make(String)
module Context = Map.Make(String)
```

Besides being interesting, we'll use sets and maps in our interpreters

Maps are natural data structures for representing contexts (collections of variable—type mappings)

I mostly wanted to make sure you saw this before we got there

Summary

We can encapsulate data and define interfaces for types or data structures all with the same construct

When we write code in a file, we're building a module