

Programming Languages

Pairs, Lists, Local Bindings,
Benefit of No Mutation

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Related Sections in Elements of ML Programming

Section 2.1 (Expressions), 2.3 (Variable Bindings),
2.4 (Tuples and Lists), 3.1 (Functions)

Function bindings: 3 questions

- Syntax: `fun x0 (x1 : t1, ... , xn : tn) = e`
 - (Will generalize in later lecture)
- Evaluation: **A function is a value!** (No evaluation yet)
 - Adds **x0** to environment so *later* expressions can *call* it
 - (Function-call semantics will also allow recursion)
- Type-checking:
 - Adds binding **x0** : (t1 * ... * tn) -> t if:
 - Can type-check body **e** to have type **t** in the static environment containing:
 - “Enclosing” static environment (earlier bindings)
 - **x1** : t1, ..., **xn** : tn (arguments with their types)
 - **x0** : (t1 * ... * tn) -> t (for recursion)

More on type-checking

```
fun x0 (x1 : t1, ... , xn : tn) = e
```

- New kind of type: $(t_1 * \dots * t_n) \rightarrow t$
 - Result type on right
 - The overall type-checking result is to give x_0 this type in rest of program (unlike Java, not for earlier bindings)
 - Arguments can be used only in e (unsurprising)
- Because evaluation of a call to x_0 will return result of evaluating e , the return type of x_0 is the type of e
- The type-checker “magically” figures out t if such a t exists
 - Later lecture: Requires some cleverness due to recursion
 - More magic after hw1: Later can omit argument types too

Function Calls

A new kind of expression: 3 questions

Syntax: `e0 (e1, ..., en)`

- (Will generalize later)
- Parentheses optional if there is exactly one argument

Type-checking:

If:

- `e0` has some type `(t1 * ... * tn) -> t`
- `e1` has type `t1`, ..., `en` has type `tn`

Then:

- `e0 (e1, ..., en)` has type `t`

Example: `pow(x, y-1)` in our example has type `int`

Function-calls continued

$e_0(e_1, \dots, e_n)$

Evaluation:

1. (Under current dynamic environment,) evaluate e_0 to a function **fun** x_0 ($x_1 : t_1, \dots, x_n : t_n$) = e
 - Since call type-checked, result *will be* a function
2. (Under current dynamic environment,) evaluate arguments to values v_1, \dots, v_n
3. Result is evaluation of e in an environment extended to map x_1 to v_1, \dots, x_n to v_n
 - (“An environment” is actually the environment where the function was defined, and includes x_0 for recursion)

Functions as Parameters

In ML, functions can be passed as parameters of another function or returned from another function

```
fun apply_f(f:int*int -> int, x:int, y:int) =  
  ...
```

```
fun ret_f():int*int -> int =  
  ...
```

Debugging Errors

Your mistake could be:

- Syntax: What you wrote means nothing or not the construct you intended
- Type-checking: What you wrote does not type-check
- Evaluation: It runs but produces wrong answer, or an exception, or an infinite loop

Let's see some error examples

So far: numbers, booleans, conditionals, variables, functions

- This is essential
- Java examples: classes with fields, arrays

Now:

- *Tuples*: fixed “number of pieces” that may have different types
- *Lists*: any “number of pieces” that all have the same type

Later:

- Other more general ways to create compound data

- The big thing we need: **local bindings**
 - For style and convenience
 - A big but natural idea: nested function bindings
 - For efficiency (**not** “just a little faster”)
- Why **not having mutation** (assignment statements) is a valuable language feature
 - No need for you to keep track of sharing/aliasing, which Java programmers must obsess about

Tuples and lists

So far: numbers, booleans, conditionals, variables, functions

- Now ways to build up data with multiple parts
- This is essential
- Java examples: classes with fields, arrays

Now:

- *Tuples*: fixed “number of pieces” that may have different types

Then:

- *Lists*: any “number of pieces” that all have the same type

Later:

- Other more general ways to create compound data

Pairs (2-tuples)

Need a way to *build* pairs and a way to *access* the pieces

Build:

- Syntax: $(e1, e2)$
- Evaluation: Evaluate $e1$ to $v1$ and $e2$ to $v2$; result is $(v1, v2)$
 - A pair of values is a value
- Type-checking: If $e1$ has type t_a and $e2$ has type t_b , then the pair expression has type $t_a * t_b$
 - A new kind of type

Pairs (2-tuples)

Need a way to *build* pairs and a way to *access* the pieces

Access:

- Syntax: **#1 e** and **#2 e**
- Evaluation: Evaluate **e** to a pair of values and return first or second piece
 - Example: If **e** is a variable **x**, then look up **x** in environment
- Type-checking: If **e** has type $t_a * t_b$, then **#1 e** has type t_a and **#2 e** has type t_b

Examples

Functions can take and return pairs

```
fun swap (pr : int*bool) =
```

```
  (* type? *)
```

```
fun sum_two_pairs
```

```
fun div_mod
```

```
fun sort_pair
```

Examples

Functions can take and return pairs

```
fun swap (pr : int*bool) =  
  (#2 pr, #1 pr)
```

```
fun sum_two_pairs (pr1 : int*int, pr2 : int*int) =  
  (#1 pr1) + (#2 pr1) + (#1 pr2) + (#2 pr2)
```

```
fun div_mod (x : int, y : int) =  
  (x div y, x mod y)
```

```
fun sort_pair (pr : int*int) =  
  if (#1 pr) < (#2 pr)  
  then pr  
  else (#2 pr, #1 pr)
```

Tuples

Actually, you can have *tuples* with more than two parts

– A new feature: a generalization of pairs

- (e_1, e_2, \dots, e_n)
- $t_a * t_b * \dots * t_n$
- $\#1\ e, \#2\ e, \#3\ e, \dots$

Nesting

Pairs and tuples can be nested however you want

- Not a new feature: implied by the syntax and semantics

```
val x1 = (7, (true, 9)) (* int * (bool*int) *)  
  
val x2 = #1 (#2 x1)      (* bool *)  
  
val x3 = (#2 x1)         (* bool*int *)  
  
val x4 = ( (3, 5), ((4, 8), (0, false)) )  
          (* (int*int)*((int*int)*(int*bool)) *)
```

Lists

- Despite nested tuples, the type of a variable still “commits” to a particular “amount” of data

In contrast, a list:

- Can have any number of elements
- But all list elements have the same type

Need ways to *build* lists and *access* the pieces...

Building Lists

- The empty list is a value:

`[]`

- In general, a list of values is a value; elements separated by commas:

`[e1, e2, ..., en]`

- If `e1` evaluates to `v1` and `e2` evaluates to a list `[v2, ..., vn]`, then `e1 :: e2` evaluates to `[v1, v2, ..., vn]`

`e1 :: e2` (* pronounced "cons" *)

Accessing Lists

Until we learn pattern-matching, we will use three standard-library functions

- `null e` evaluates to `true` if and only if `e` evaluates to `[]`
- If `e` evaluates to `[v1, v2, ..., vn]` then `hd e` evaluates to `v1`
 - (raise exception if `e` evaluates to `[]`)
- If `e` evaluates to `[v1, v2, ..., vn]` then `tl e` evaluates to `[v2, ..., vn]`
 - (raise exception if `e` evaluates to `[]`)
 - Notice result is a list

Type-checking list operations

Lots of new types: For any type `t`, the type `t list` describes lists where all elements have type `t`

– Examples: `int list` `bool list` `int list list`
 `(int * int) list` `(int list * int) list`

- So `[]` have type ...
- For `e1::e2` to type-check, we need a `t` such that `e1` has type `t` and `e2` has type `t list`. Then the result type is `t list`
- `null` : `'a list -> bool`
- `hd` : `'a list -> 'a`
- `tl` : `'a list -> 'a list`

Type-checking list operations

Lots of new types: For any type `t`, the type `t list` describes lists where all elements have type `t`

– Examples: `int list` `bool list` `int list list`
 `(int * int) list` `(int list * int) list`

- So `[]` can have type `t list` for *any* type `t`
 - SML uses type `'a list` to indicate this (“quote a” or “alpha”)
- For `e1::e2` to type-check, we need a `t` such that `e1` has type `t` and `e2` has type `t list`. Then the result type is `t list`
- `null` : `'a list -> bool`
- `hd` : `'a list -> 'a`
- `tl` : `'a list -> 'a list`

Example list functions

```
fun sum_list (xs : int list) =
```

```
fun countdown (x : int) =
```

```
fun append (xs : int list, ys : int list) =
```

Example list functions

```
fun sum_list (xs : int list) =  
  if null xs  
  then 0  
  else hd(xs) + sum_list(tl(xs))
```

```
fun countdown (x : int) =  
  if x=0  
  then []  
  else x :: countdown (x-1)
```

```
fun append (xs : int list, ys : int list) =  
  if null xs  
  then ys  
  else hd (xs) :: append (tl(xs), ys)
```


Recursion again

Functions over lists are usually recursive

- Only way to “get to all the elements”
- What should the answer be for the empty list?
- What should the answer be for a non-empty list?
 - Typically in terms of the answer for the tail of the list!

Similarly, functions that produce lists of potentially any size will be recursive

- You create a list out of smaller lists

Lists of pairs

Processing lists of pairs requires no new features. Examples:

```
fun sum_pair_list (xs : (int*int) list) =
```

```
fun firsts (xs : (int*int) list) =
```

```
fun seconds (xs : (int*int) list) =
```

```
fun sum_pair_list2 (xs : (int*int) list) =
```

Lists of pairs

Processing lists of pairs requires no new features. Examples:

```
fun sum_pair_list (xs : (int*int) list) =  
  if null xs  
  then 0  
  else #1(hd xs) + #2(hd xs) + sum_pair_list(tl xs)  
  
fun firsts (xs : (int*int) list) =  
  if null xs  
  then []  
  else #1(hd xs) :: firsts(tl xs)  
  
fun seconds (xs : (int*int) list) =  
  if null xs  
  then []  
  else #2(hd xs) :: seconds(tl xs)  
  
fun sum_pair_list2 (xs : (int*int) list) =  
  (sum_list (firsts xs)) + (sum_list (seconds xs))
```

Let-expressions

3 questions:

- Syntax: `let b1 b2 ... bn in e end`
 - Each ***b_i*** is any *binding* and ***e*** is any *expression*
- Type-checking: Type-check each ***b_i*** and ***e*** in a static environment that includes the previous bindings.
Type of whole let-expression is the type of ***e***.
- Evaluation: Evaluate each ***b_i*** and ***e*** in a dynamic environment that includes the previous bindings.
Result of whole let-expression is result of evaluating ***e***.

It is an expression

A let-expression is ***just an expression***, so we can use it
anywhere an expression can go

Silly examples

```
fun silly1 (z : int) =  
  let val x = if z > 0 then z else 34  
    val y = x+z+9  
  in  
    if x > y then x*2 else y*y  
  end  
fun silly2 () =  
  let val x = 1  
  in  
    (let val x = 2 in x+1 end) +  
    (let val y = x+2 in y+1 end)  
  end
```

`silly2` is poor style but shows let-expressions are expressions

- Can also use them in function-call arguments, if branches, etc.
- Also notice shadowing

What's new

- What's new is **scope**: where a binding is in the environment
 - *In* later bindings and body of the let-expression
 - (Unless a later or nested binding shadows it)
 - *Only in* later bindings and body of the let-expression
- *Nothing else is new:*
 - Can put any binding we want, even function bindings
 - Type-check and evaluate just like at “top-level”

Any binding

According to our rules for let-expressions, we can define functions inside any let-expression

```
let  b1 b2 ... bn  in  e  end
```

This is a natural idea, and often good style

(Inferior) Example

```
fun countup_from1 (x : int) =  
  let fun count (from : int, to : int) =  
        if from = to  
        then to :: []  
        else from :: count(from+1,to)  
      in  
        count (1,x)  
      end
```

- This shows how to use a local function binding, but:
 - Better version on next slide
 - **count** might be useful elsewhere

Better:

```
fun countup_from1_better (x : int) =  
  let fun count (from : int) =  
        if from = x  
        then x :: []  
        else from :: count(from+1)  
      in  
        count 1  
      end
```

- Functions can use bindings in the environment where they are defined:
 - Bindings from “outer” environments
 - Such as parameters to the outer function
 - Earlier bindings in the let-expression
- Unnecessary parameters are usually bad style
 - Like `to` in previous example

Nested functions: style

- Good style to define helper functions inside the functions they help if they are:
 - Unlikely to be useful elsewhere
 - Likely to be misused if available elsewhere
 - Likely to be changed or removed later
- A fundamental trade-off in code design: reusing code saves effort and avoids bugs, but makes the reused code harder to change later

Avoid repeated recursion

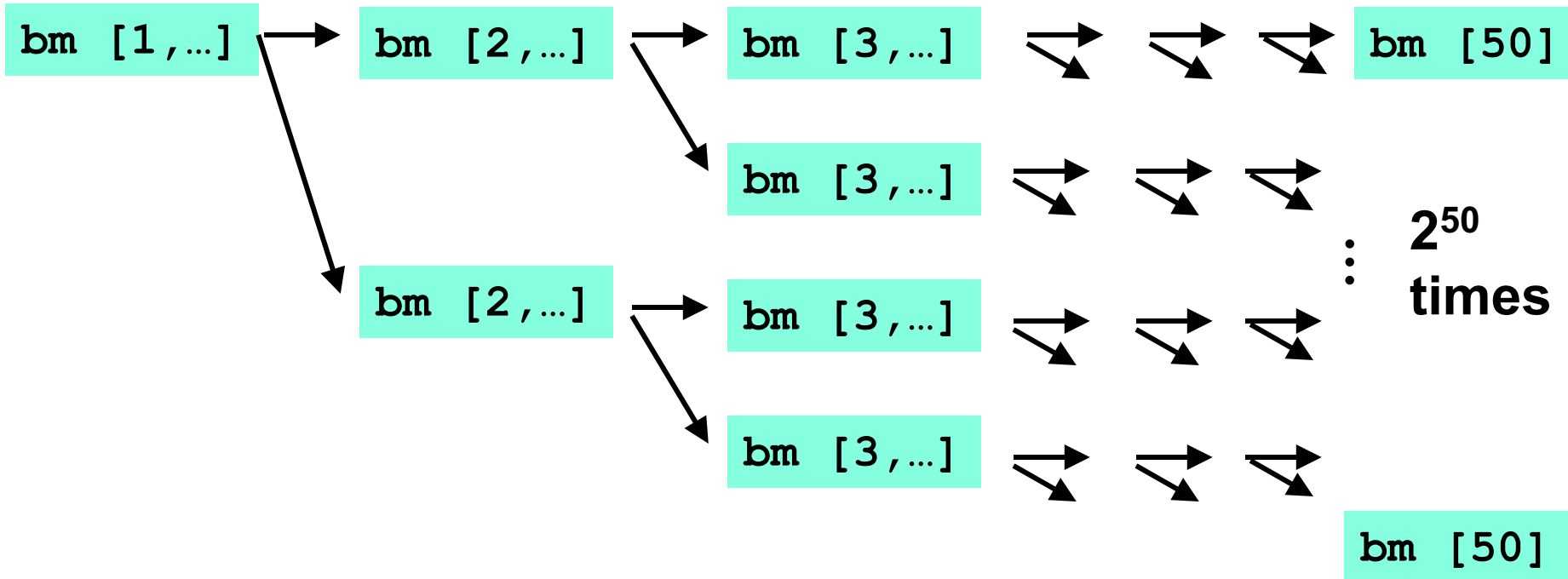
Consider this code and the recursive calls it makes

- Don't worry about calls to `null`, `hd`, and `tl` because they do a small constant amount of work

```
fun bad_max (xs : int list) =  
  if null xs  
  then 0 (* horrible style; fix later *)  
  else if null (tl xs)  
  then hd xs  
  else if hd xs > bad_max (tl xs)  
  then hd xs  
  else bad_max (tl xs)  
  
let x = bad_max [50,49,...,1]  
let y = bad_max [1,2,...,50]
```

Fast vs. unusable

```
if hd xs > bad_max (tl xs)
then hd xs
else bad_max (tl xs)
```



Math never lies

Suppose one `bad_max` call's if-then-else logic and calls to `hd`, `null`, `t1` take 10^{-7} seconds

- Then `bad_max [50,49,...,1]` takes 50×10^{-7} seconds
- And `bad_max [1,2,...,50]` takes 1.12×10^8 seconds
 - (over 3.5 years)
 - `bad_max [1,2,...,55]` takes over 1 century
 - Buying a faster computer won't help much ☺

The key is not to do repeated work that might do repeated work that might do...

- Saving recursive results in local bindings is essential...

Efficient max

```
fun good_max (xs : int list) =  
  if null xs  
  then 0 (* horrible style; fix later *)  
  else if null (tl xs)  
       then hd xs  
       else  
         let val tl_ans = good_max(tl xs)  
         in  
           if hd xs > tl_ans  
           then hd xs  
           else tl_ans  
         end  
end
```

Fast vs. fast

```
let val tl_ans = good_max(tl xs)
in
  if hd xs > tl_ans
  then hd xs
  else tl_ans
end
```

gm [50,...] → gm [49,...] → gm [48,...] → → → gm [1]

gm [1,...] → gm [2,...] → gm [3,...] → → → gm [50]

Options

- `t option` is a type for any type `t`
 - (much like `t list`, but a different type, not a list)

Building:

- `NONE` has type `'a option` (much like `[]` has type `'a list`)
- `SOME e` has type `t option` if `e` has type `t` (much like `e :: []`)

Accessing:

- `isSome` has type `'a option -> bool`
- `valOf` has type `'a option -> 'a` (exception if given `NONE`)

Example

```
fun better_max (xs : int list) =  
  if null xs  
  then NONE  
  else  
    let val tl_ans = better_max(tl xs)  
    in  
      if isSome tl_ans  
        andalso valOf tl_ans > hd xs  
      then tl_ans  
      else SOME (hd xs)  
    end  
end
```

```
val better_max = fn : int list -> int option
```

Example

```
fun better_max (xs : int list) =  
  if null xs  
  then NONE  
  else  
    let val tl_ans = better_max(tl xs)  
    in  
      if isSome tl_ans  
        andalso valOf tl_ans > hd xs  
      then tl_ans  
      else SOME (hd xs)  
    end  
  end
```

```
val better_max = fn : int list -> int option
```

- Nothing wrong with this, but as a matter of style might prefer not to do so much useless “`valOf`” in the recursion

Example variation

```
fun better_max2 (xs : int list) =  
  if null xs  
  then NONE  
  else let (* ok to assume xs nonempty b/c local *)  
        fun max_nonempty (xs : int list) =  
          if null (tl xs)  
          then hd xs  
          else  
            let val tl_ans = max_nonempty (tl xs)  
            in  
              if hd xs > tl_ans  
              then hd xs  
              else tl_ans  
            end  
        in  
          SOME (max_nonempty xs)  
        end
```

Cannot tell if you copy

```
fun sort_pair (pr : int * int) =  
  if #1 pr < #2 pr  
  then pr  
  else (#2 pr, #1 pr)  
  
fun sort_pair (pr : int * int) =  
  if #1 pr < #2 pr  
  then (#1 pr, #2 pr)  
  else (#2 pr, #1 pr)
```

In ML, these two implementations of `sort_pair` are **indistinguishable**

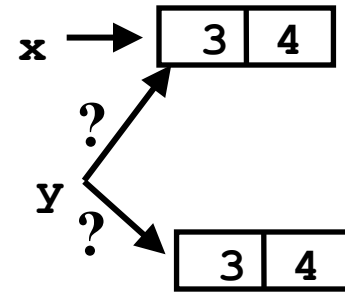
- But only because tuples are immutable
- The first is better style: simpler and avoids making a new pair in the then-branch
- In languages with mutable compound data, these are different!

Suppose we had mutation...

```
val x = (3,4)
val y = sort_pair x
```

somehow mutate #1 x to hold 5

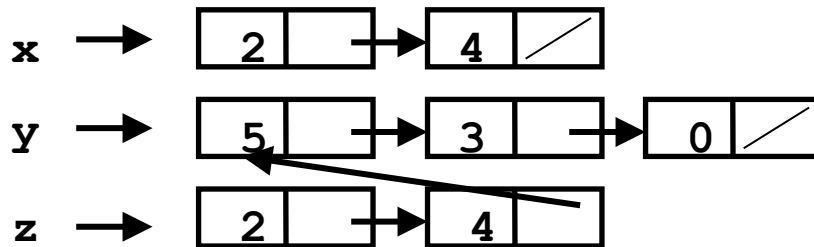
```
val z = #1 y
```



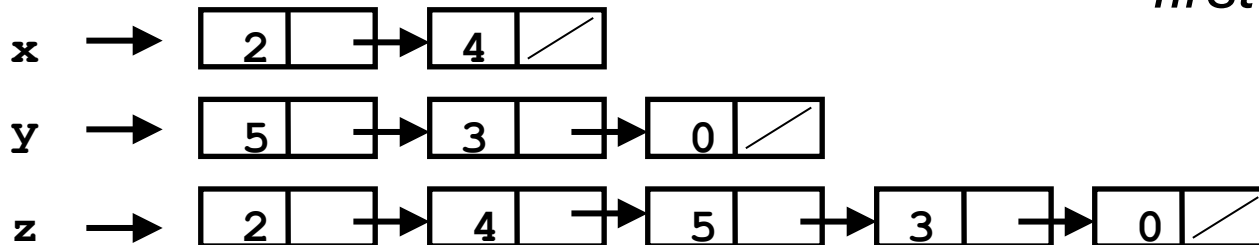
- What is `z`?
 - Would depend on how we implemented `sort_pair`
 - Would have to decide carefully and document `sort_pair`
 - But without mutation, we can implement “either way”
 - No code can ever distinguish aliasing vs. identical copies
 - No need to think about aliasing: focus on other things
 - Can use aliasing, which saves space, without danger

An even better example

```
fun append (xs : int list, ys : int list) =  
  if null xs  
  then ys  
  else hd (xs) :: append (tl(xs), ys)  
val x = [2,4]  
val y = [5,3,0]  
val z = append(x,y)
```



or



(can't tell,
but it's the
first one)

ML vs. Imperative Languages

- In ML, we create aliases all the time without thinking about it because it is *impossible* to tell where there is aliasing
 - Example: `tl` is constant time; does not copy rest of the list
 - So don't worry and focus on your algorithm
- In languages with mutable data (e.g., Java), programmers are *obsessed* with aliasing and object identity
 - They have to be (!) so that subsequent assignments affect the right parts of the program
 - Often crucial to make copies in just the right places
 - Consider a Java example...

Java security nightmare (bad code)

```
class ProtectedResource {
    private Resource theResource = ...;
    private String[] allowedUsers = ...;
    public String[] getAllowedUsers() {
        return allowedUsers;
    }
    public String currentUser() { ... }
    public void useTheResource() {
        for(int i=0; i < allowedUsers.length; i++) {
            if(currentUser().equals(allowedUsers[i])) {
                ... // access allowed: use it
                return;
            }
        }
        throw new IllegalAccessException();
    }
}
```

Have to make copies

The problem:

```
p.getAllowedUsers()[0] = p.currentUser();  
p.useTheResource();
```

The fix:

```
public String[] getAllowedUsers() {  
    ... return a copy of allowedUsers ...  
}
```

Reference (alias) vs. copy doesn't matter if code is immutable!