Programming Languages and Techniques (CIS120)

Lecture 12

Partiality, Sequencing Chapters 11, 12

Midterm 1

- Friday, September 27th
- Coverage: up to Monday, Sept. 23 (Chs. 1-10)
- Time: During lecture (001 @ 11am, 002 @ noon) Last names: A – L Leidy Labs 10 Last names: M – Z Stitler (STIT) B6
- Review Session: TONIGHT 6:00-8:00pm Towne 100
- Review Material:
 - old exams on the web site lecture schedule
- Makeup exam
 - Monday, Sept. 30th
 - sign up form on the web site

Announcements

- Dr. Sheth will have extra office hours Thursday 4:00-6:00PM in Levine 264
- Homework 4
 - Available soon after exam
 - Due: Tuesday, Oct. 8th

Signature: Finite Map

```
module type MAP = sig
  type ('k,'v) map
 val empty : ('k,'v) map
 val add : 'k -> 'v -> ('k, 'v) map -> ('k, 'v) map
 val remove : 'k -> ('k,'v) map -> ('k,'v) map
 val mem : 'k -> ('k, 'v) map -> bool
 val get : 'k -> ('k, 'v) map -> 'v
 val entries : ('k,'v) map \rightarrow ('k * 'v) list
 val equals : ('k,'v) map \rightarrow ('k,'v) map \rightarrow bool
end
```

Properties of Finite Maps

For any finite map m, key k, and value v:

- 1. get k (add k v m) = v
- 2. If k1 <> k2 and get k1 m = v1 then get k1 (add k2 v2 m) = v1
- 3. if mem k m = true then there is a v such that get k m = v

4. If mem k m = false then
get k m =
$$v$$
 fails

- 5. mem k (add k v m) = true
- 6. mem k (remove k m) = false And others...

Completing module implementation

finiteMap.ml

Implementation: Ordered Lists

module Assoc : MAP = struct

```
(* Represent a finite map as a list of pairs. *)
 (* Representation invariant:
  (* - no duplicate keys (helps get, remove)
                                                     *)
  (* - keys are sorted (helps equals, helps get)
                                                     *)
type ('k,'v) map = ('k * 'v) list
 let empty : ('k,'v) map = []
 let rec mem (key:'k) (m : ('k,'v) map) : bool =
    begin match m with
   | [] -> false
   | (k,v)::rest ->
     (key >= k) &&
         ((key = k) || (mem key rest))
    end
```

;; run_test "mem test" (fun () -> mem "b" [("a",3); ("b",4)])

Implementation: Ordered Lists

```
let rec get (key:'k) (m : ('k,'v) map) : 'v =
  begin match m with
  | [] -> failwith "key not found"
  | (k,v)::rest ->
    if key < k then failwith "key not found"
    else if key = k then v
    else get key rest
  end
let rec remove (key:'k) (m : ('k,'v) map) : ('k,'v) map =
  begin match m with
  | [] -> []
  | (k,v)::rest ->
    if key < k then m
    else if key = k then rest
   else (k,v)::remove key rest
  end
```

Abstract types

BIG IDEA: Hide the *concrete representation* of a type behind an *abstract interface* to preserve invariants

- The interface **restricts** how other parts of the program can interact with the data
 - Type checking ensures that the **only** way to create a set is with the operations in the interface
 - If all operations preserve invariants, then all sets in the program must satisfy invariants
 - Example: all BST-implemented sets must satisfy the BST invariant, therefore the lookup function can assume that its input satisfies the invariant
- Benefits:
 - Safety: The other parts of the program can't cause bugs in the set implementation
 - Modularity: It is possible to change the implementation without changing the rest of the program

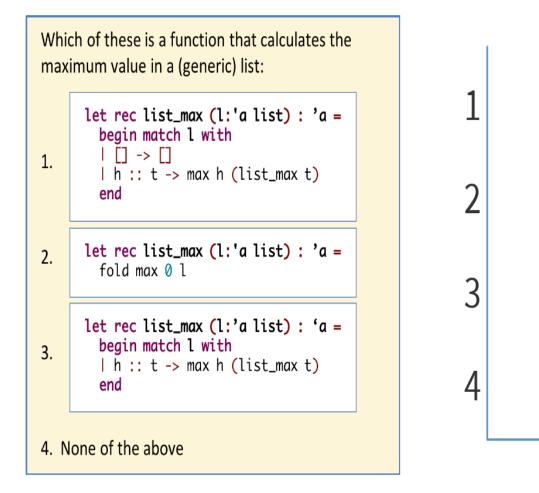
Summary: Abstract Types

- Different programming languages have different ways of letting you define abstract types
- At a minimum, this means providing:
 - A way to specify (write down) an interface
 - A means of hiding implementation details (*encapsulation*)
- In OCaml:
 - Interfaces are specified using a *signature* or *interface*
 - Encapsulation is achieved because the interface can *omit* information
 - type definitions
 - names and types of auxiliary functions
 - Clients *cannot* mention values or types not named in the interface

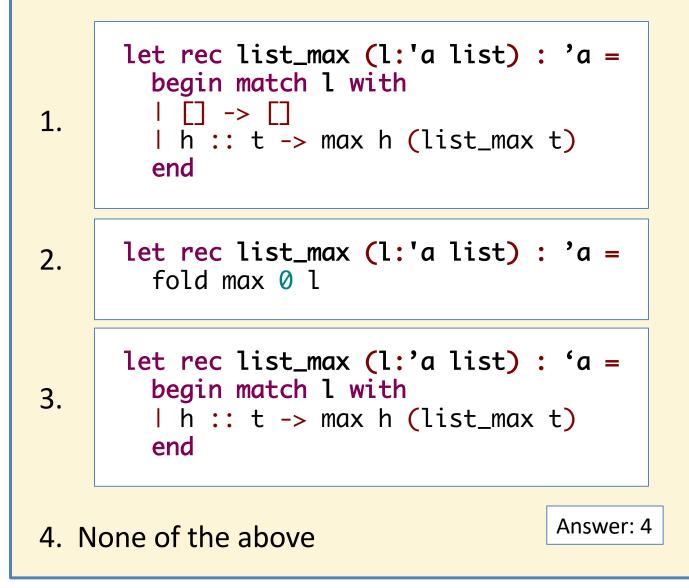
Dealing with Partiality*

*A function is said to be *partial* if it is not defined for all inputs.

Which of these is a function that calculates the maximum value in a (generic) list?



Which of these is a function that calculates the maximum value in a (generic) list:



Quiz answer

• list_max isn't defined for the empty list!

Client of list_max

```
(* string_of_max calls list_max *)
let string_of_max (x:int list) : string =
   string_of_int (list_max x)
```

- Oops! string_of_max will fail if given []
- Not so easy to debug if string_of_max is written by one person and list_max is written by another.
- Interface of list_max is not very informative
 val list_max : int list -> int

Solutions to Partiality: Option 1

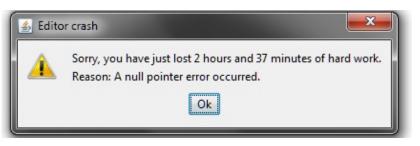
• Abort the program:

failwith "an error message"

- Whenever it is called, failwith halts the program and reports the error message it is given.
- This solution is appropriate whenever you *know* that a certain case is impossible
 - The compiler isn't smart enough to figure out that the case is impossible...
 - Often happens when there is an invariant on a data structure
 - failwith is also useful to "stub out" unimplemented parts of your program.
- Languages (e.g. OCaml, Java) support *exception handling facilities* to let programs recover from such failures.
 - We'll talk about these when we get to Java

Solutions to Partiality: Option 2

- Return a *default or error value*
 - e.g. define list_max [] to be -1
 - Error codes used often in C programs
 - null used often in Java
- But...
 - What if -1 (or whatever default you choose) really *is* the maximum value?
 - Can lead to many bugs if the default isn't handled properly by the callers.
 - IMPOSSIBLE to implement generically!
 - No way to generically create a sensible default value for every possible type
 - Sir Tony Hoare, Turing Award winner and inventor of null calls it his "billion dollar mistake"!
- Defaults should be avoided if possible



Optional values

Solutions to Partiality: Option 3

Option Types

• Define a generic datatype of *optional values*:

• A "partial" function returns an option

```
let list_max (l:list) : int option = ...
```

- Contrast this with "null", a "legal" return value of any type
 - caller can accidentally forget to check whether null was used; results in NullPointerExceptions or crashes
- Modern language designs (e.g. Apple's Swift, Mozilla's Rust) distinguish between the type String (definitely not null) and String? (optional string)

Example: list_max

• A function that returns the maximum value of a list as an option (None if the list is empty)

```
let list_max (l:'a list) : 'a option =
    begin match l with
        [] -> None
        I x::tl -> Some (fold max x tl)
    end
```

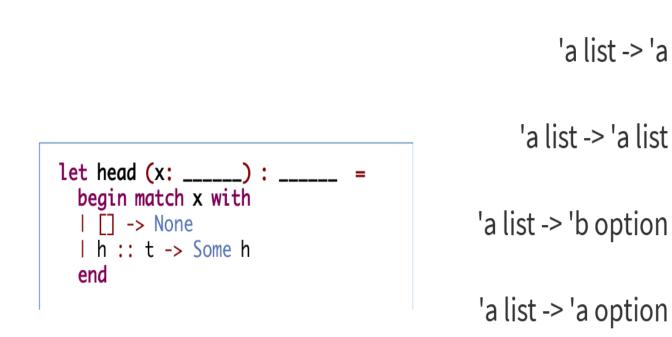
Revised client of list_max

```
(* string_of_max calls list_max *)
let string_of_max (l:int list) : string =
    begin match (list_max l) with
    l None -> "no maximum"
    l Some m -> string_of_int m
    end
```

- string_of_max will never fail
- The type of list_max makes it explicit that a *client* must check for partiality.

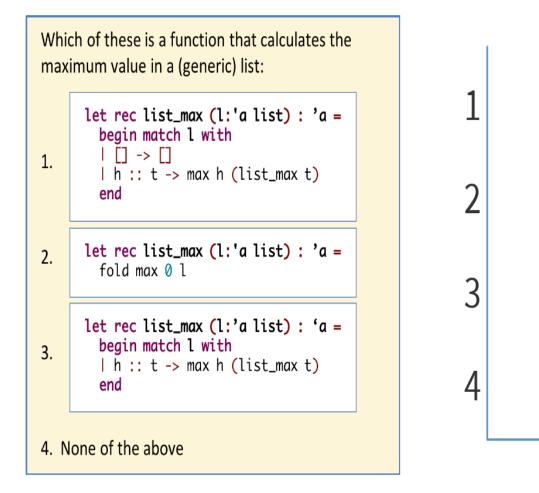
```
val list_max : int list -> int option
```

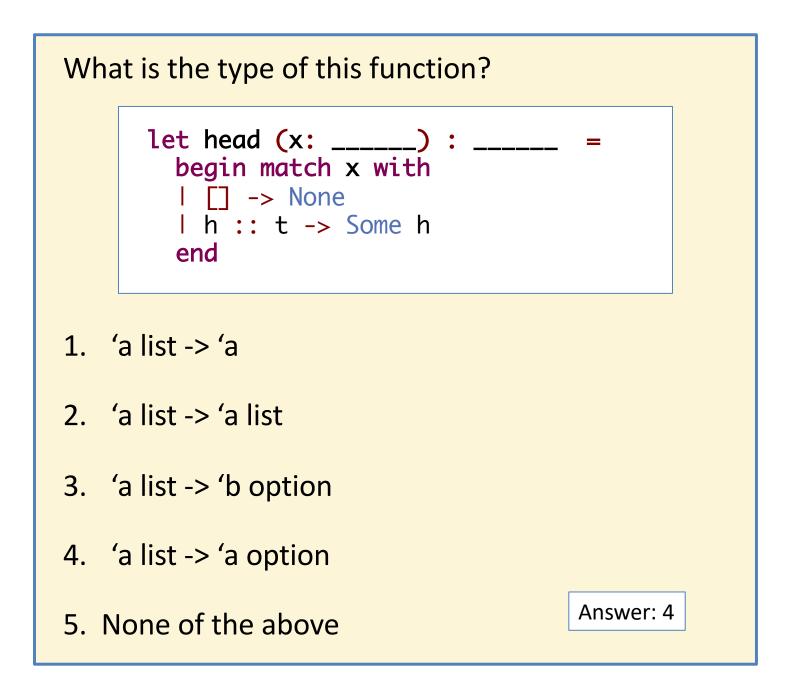
What is the type of this function?



None of the above

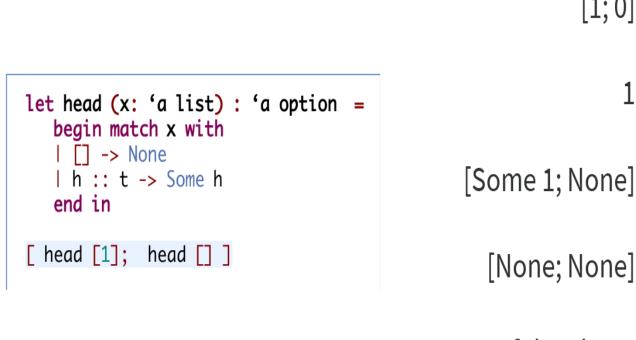
Which of these is a function that calculates the maximum value in a (generic) list?







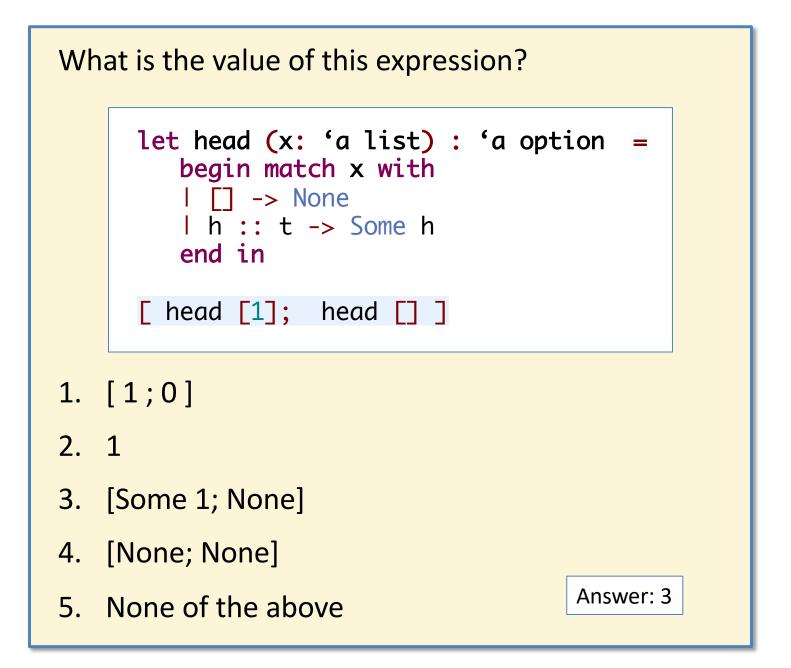
What is the value of this expression?



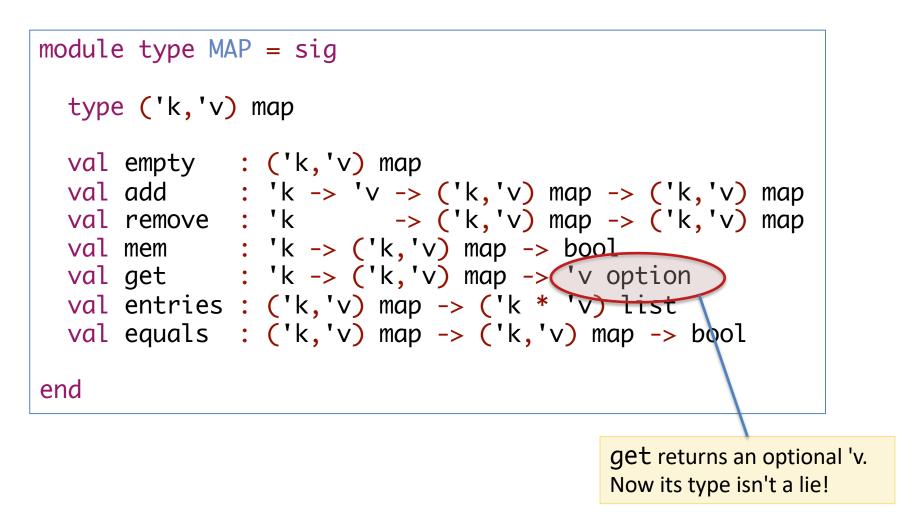
None of the above

[1;0]

1



Revising the MAP interface



Commands, Sequencing and Unit

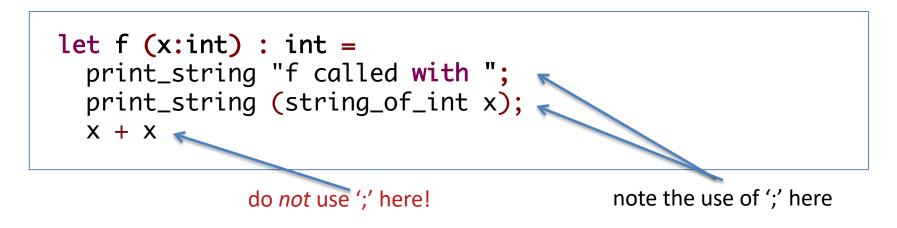
What is the type of print_string?



Sequencing Commands and Expressions

We can sequence commands inside expressions using ';'

unlike in C, Java, etc., ';' doesn't terminate a statement it *separates* a command from an expression



The distinction between commands & expressions is artificial.

- print_string is a function of type: string -> unit
- Commands are actually just expressions of type: unit

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unit: the trivial type

- Similar to "void" in Java or C
- For functions that don't take any arguments

let f () : int = 3
let y : int = f ()
val f : unit -> int
val y : int

Also for functions that don't return anything, such as testing and printing functions a.k.a *commands*:

```
(* run_test : string -> (unit -> bool) -> unit *)
;; run_test "TestName" test
(* print_string : string -> unit *)
;; print_string "Hello, world!"
```

unit: the boring type

- Actually, () is a value just like any other value (a 0-ary tuple)
- For functions that don't take any interesting arguments

let f () : int = 3
let y : int = f ()
val f : unit -> int
val y : int

• Also for functions that don't return anything interesting, such as testing and printing functions a.k.a *commands*:

```
(* run_test : string -> (unit -> bool) -> unit *)
;; run_test "TestName" test
(* print_string : string -> unit *)
;; print_string "Hello, world!"
```

unit: the first-class type

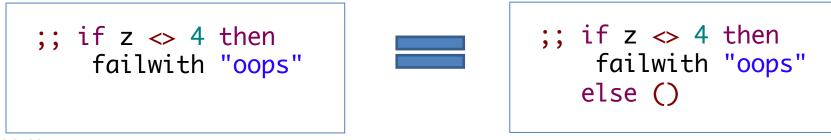
• Can define values of type unit



• Can pattern match unit (even in function definitions)

fun () -> 3

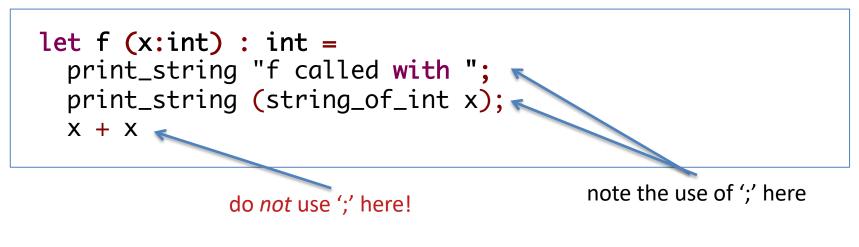
• Is the result of an implicit else branch:



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Sequencing Commands and Expressions

- Expressions of type unit are useful because of their side effects – they "do" stuff
 - e.g. printing, changing the value of mutable state



 We can think of ';' as an infix function of type: unit -> 'a -> 'a

let f (x:int) =

print_int (x + x)

What is the type of f in the following program?

unit -> int unit -> unit int -> unit int -> int f is ill typed

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Total Results

What is the type of **f** in the following program:

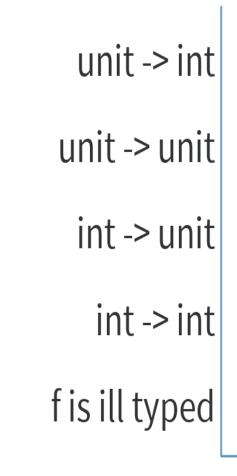
let f (x:int) =
 print_int (x + x)

1. unit -> int
2. unit -> unit
3. int -> unit
4. int -> int
5. f is ill typed

Answer: 3

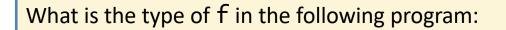


What is the type of f in the following program?



let f (x:int) =
 (print_int x);
 (x + x)

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```
let f (x:int) =
   (print_int x);
   (x + x)
```

1. unit -> int
2. unit -> unit
3. int -> unit
4. int -> int
5. f is ill typed

Answer: 4