# Lecture 16: Mutable State

Steven Holtzen <s.holtzen@northeastern.edu>

CS4400/5400 Fall 2024

#### **1 Programming with Mutable State**

• We've seen a few examples of programming with mutable state in Racket using box, unbox, and set-box!:

```
> (define my-box (box 10))
> (unbox my-box)
10
> (set-box! my-box 20)
> (unbox my-box)
20
```
• OCaml also supports references, using different syntax:

```
# let r = ref 10;; (* boxes are declared using the ref syntax *)
val r : int ref = {contents = 10}# !r;; (* unbox is written !r *)
- : int = 10
# r := 25;; (* set-box! is written with :- *)- : unit = ()# !r;;
- : int = 25
```
- So far in class, all the languages we have implemented have had **immutable values**: once a value is bound to an identifier, it can never change.
- These programs exhibit **mutable values**: it is possible for a value to change after it is defined.
- In this class we'll design a semantics and type system for languages with mutable state.

## **2 Some Consequences of Mutation**

- Mutation is an **effect**. Effects are things a program does besides returning values. Examples of effects include: mutable updates; printing things to your display; writing things to a file; and other ways of interacting with the environment.
- So far in class all of our programs have been **pure**, meaning that they are free from effects. This means that our programs have been entirely characterized by their input and output behavior; this property is often called **referential transparency**.
- $\bullet$  A pure function always has the same behavior when it is called with the same arguments.<sup>[1](#page-1-0)</sup> In general, this is a nice property to have. But, mutation clearly permits writing programs that do not satisfy this property, for example, a simple counter function:

```
> (define my-counter (box 0))
> (define (fresh)
    (set-box! my-counter (+ (unbox my-counter) 1))
    (unbox my-counter))
> (fresh)
 1
> (fresh)
 2
> (fresh)
3
```
The fresh function is not referentially transparent because it yields different outputs when provided with the same input.

- Purity is a powerful property because it enables many kinds of compiler optimizations and makes it easy for programmers to understand what a function does. For example, if we determine that a pure function is only ever called with a single argument, then the compiler can exploit this fact to generate more efficient code.
- It is also easier to unit test pure functions: when testing functions with effects, one must also consider the environment (or *context*) in which the program is being run.

<span id="page-1-0"></span><sup>&</sup>lt;sup>1</sup>"The definition of insanity is doing the same thing over and over again and expecting different results"

#### **3 MutLang: A Small Language with Mutable State**

• Let's consider at first small untyped surface language for mutable state with the following surface syntax:

```
e ::= (let <ident> <e> <e>)
     | <ident>
     | (box <e>)
     | (unbox <ident>)
     | (set-box! <ident> <e>)
     | <number>
     | <unit>
     | (add <e> <e>)
```
Figure 1: Surface syntax of untyped MutLang.

- The goal is for MutLang to behave like a small subset of Racket that supports boxes.
- Semantics in English:
	- **–** (box e) does the following: (1) it allocates a new cell on the **heap** at location ℓ (which maps addresses to values), (2) stores the result of running e in the heap at location  $\ell$ , (3) returns the location  $\ell$ .
	- **–** (unbox x) does the following: (1) get location ℓ that the identifier x corresponds with, (2) returns the value in the heap at location  $\ell$ .
	- **–** (set-box! x e) does the following: (1) get location ℓ that identifier x corresponds with, (2) sets heap at location  $\ell$  equal to the result of running e, (3) returns the number 0.
- Let's run some MutLang programs to see how they work. We will again rely on our stepper arrow  $\rightarrow$ to visualize simplifying the program step by step. Our step will have the form  $\rho, e \to \rho', e'$  where  $\rho$  is an environment.
- In the following stepping judgments, we will use OCaml-like surface syntax and permit ourselves the use of syntactic sugar like let to make things easier to follow.

```
\{\}, let x = box 10 in unbox x
-- evaluate box 10 -->
 \{0 \times 0 \mapsto 10\}, let x = 0 \times 0 in unbox x
-- substitute x -->
  \{0x0 \mapsto 10\}, unbox 0x0
-- evaluate unbox -->
  {0x0 \mapsto 10}, 10
```
• Let's do an example involving set-box!:

```
\{\}, let x = box 10 in (let z = set-box! x 20 in (unbox x))
-- evaluate box -->
 \{0 \times 0 \mapsto 10\}, let x = 0 \times 0 in (let z = set-box! x 20 in (unbox x))
-- substitute x -->
 \{0 \times 0 \mapsto 10\}, let z = set-box! 0x0 20 in (unbox 0x0)
-- evaluate set-box! -->
 \{0 \times 0 \mapsto 20\}, let z = 0 in (unbox 0x0)
-- substitute z -->
 \{0x0 \mapsto 20\}, unbox 0x0
-- evaluate unbox -->
  20
```
• *Notice*: it is not possible for us to generate a location without using box. This prevents a large class of errors, such as dereferencing unallocated memory cells or stack overflows.

#### **4 A MutLang Interpreter**

```
;;; result of running the interpreter
(struct interp-res (v heap) #:transparent)
;;; interp : heap -> enviroment -> lexpr -> value * heap
;;; runs a lambda term and produces a value and a new heap
(define (interp heap env e)
 (match e
   [(eident x)
    (interp-res (hash-ref env x) heap)]
   [(enum n) (interp-res (vnum n) heap)]
   [(elet id assgn body)
    (define interp-assgn (interp heap env assgn))
    (define extend-env (hash-set env id (interp-res-v interp-assgn)))
    (interp (interp-res-heap interp-assgn) extend-env body)]
   [(eadd e1 e2)
    (define interp-e1 (interp heap env e1))
    (define interp-e2 (interp (interp-res-heap interp-e1) env e2))
    (define res-v (vnum (+ (vnum-n (interp-res-v (interp-e1)))
                            (vnum-n (interp-res-v (interp-e2))))))
    (interp-res res-v (interp-res-heap interp-e2))]
   [(ebox e1)
    (define loc (fresh-loc))
    (define interp-e1 (interp heap env e1))
    (define new-heap (hash-set (interp-res-heap interp-e1)
                                loc
                                (interp-res-v interp-e1)))
    (interp-res (vloc loc) new-heap)]
   [(eunbox e)
    (define interp-e (interp heap env e))
    (define new-heap (interp-res-heap interp-e))
    (match (interp-res-v interp-e)
       [(vloc ]; dereference the location and return it
       (interp-res (hash-ref new-heap l) new-heap)]
       [_ (error 'illegal-unbox)])]
   [(eset x e)
     ; set x = e in the heap and return the (\circ, new_heap)
    (define loc (vloc-l (hash-ref env x)))
    (define eval-e (interp heap env e))
    (interp-res (vunit) (hash-set (interp-res-heap eval-e) loc (interp-res-v eval-e)))
    ]))
```
## **5 Designing a Type System for MutLang**

- What are the ways in which MutLang programs can go wrong? Here are some examples that go beyond the typical ones we've seen for the simply-typed lambda calculus:
	- 1. Unboxing a non-ref: (unbox 10)
	- 2. Treating an unboxed value as the wrong type: let  $x = ref$  true in  $1x + 20$
	- 3. This one is very subtle: *changing the type* of a value on the heap. This is called a **strong update**. For example, in OCaml, the following program yields a runtime error:

```
let x = ref 10 in
x := true
!x + 20
```
• Strong updates are tricky because sometimes they do not lead to runtime errors. For example, the following program performs a strong update that does not cause a runtime error:

```
let x = ref 10 in
x := true
!x
```
- We are once again in a soundness–expressivity tradeoff. We will choose to *forbid strong updates* in our type system, because determining the type of a value at runtime can be very computationally expensive. This is the choice OCaml makes.
- So, we need a type system that prevents the above runtime errors. This necessitates the use of a *reference type* Ref t, which denotes a reference to a value of type t. Our types are then:
	- t ::= Ref t | TNum | TBool | TFun t t

 $\Gamma \vdash \mathsf{e} : t$  $\overline{\Gamma \vdash (\texttt{box} \,\, \texttt{e}) : \texttt{Ref} \, t}$   $(\texttt{T-Box})$  $\Gamma\vdash$  e : Ref  $t$  $\overline{\Gamma \vdash (\textsf{unbox} \; \mathsf{e}) : t}$  (T-UNBOX)  $\Gamma(x) = t$  Γ  $\vdash e : t$  $\overline{\Gamma \vdash (\texttt{set-box!} \times \texttt{e}) : \texttt{num}}$  (T-SETBOX)

Figure 2: Typing rules for mutable references.

#### **6 Consequences of Mutable State**

- Quite surprisingly, the simply-typed lambda calculus augmented with mutable state is sufficiently expressive to write recursive programs!
- Consider the following OCaml program that is (1) well-typed, (2) does not make use of recursion features like letrec, and (3) runs forever:

```
let x = box (fun x \rightarrow x + 1) in
let myfun = fun y \rightarrow (!x) 10 in
x := myfun;myfun 20
```
Figure 3: Landin's knot: a program that runs forever that involves mutable state.

• Let's run this program by hand to see why it runs forever:

```
\{\}, let x = box (fun x -> x + 1) in
     let myfun = fun y \rightarrow (!x) 10 in
     x := myfun;myfun 20
-- evaluate box -->
  \{0 \times 0 \mapsto (\text{fun } x \rightarrow x + 1)\},let x = 0x0 in
     let myfun = fun y \rightarrow (/x) 10 in
     x := myfun;myfun 20
-- substitute x -->
  \{0 \times 0 \mapsto (\text{fun } x \rightarrow x + 1)\},let myfun = fun y -> (!0x0) 10 in
     0x0 := myfun;myfun 20
-- substitute myfun -->
  \{0 \times 0 \mapsto (\text{fun } x \rightarrow x + 1)\},0x0 := fun y -> (!0x0) 10;
     (fun y -> (!0x0) 10) 20
-- update heap -->
  \{0 \times 0 \mapsto (\text{fun } y \rightarrow (\text{.0} \times 0) \text{ 10})\},(fun y -> (!0x0) 10) 20
-- substitute 20 -->
  \{0 \times 0 \mapsto (\text{fun } y \rightarrow (\text{.0} \times 0) \text{ 10})\},(!0x0) 10
-- lookup 0x0 -->
  \{0 \times 0 \mapsto (\text{fun } y \rightarrow (\text{.0} \times 0) \text{ 10})\},(fun y -> (!0x0) 10) 10
...
```
## **7 Type Conclusions**

- Key concepts we've covered in this module:
	- **–** The concept of types and type safety
	- **–** How to design a typechecker to prevent runtime errors
	- **–** The simply-typed lambda calculus (STLC) and its properties
	- **–** Extensions of STLC: sum types, product types, mutable references
	- **–** Beyond simple types: System F and polymorphism
	- **–** Runtime safety and an abstract x86 machine
- Some interesting topics in types we did not have time to cover, almost too many to list: 1. Existential types and modules 2. Dependent types 3. Recursive types 4. Higher-kinded types 5. Subtyping 6. Gradual typing 7. Objects and object-oriented programming
- If you want to learn more:
	- **–** Read [Pierce](#page-7-0) [\[2002\]](#page-7-0), which you should now be prepared to read.
	- **–** Check out this webpage: <https://counterexamples.org/intro.html>
	- **–** Explore Software Foundations, which is an introduction to using the Coq proof assistant: [https:](https://softwarefoundations.cis.upenn.edu/) [//softwarefoundations.cis.upenn.edu/](https://softwarefoundations.cis.upenn.edu/)
- Types are increasingly influencing modern language design:
	- **–** Web assembly (WASM) has types in its specification: [https://webassembly.github.io/](https://webassembly.github.io/spec/core/syntax/types.html) [spec/core/syntax/types.html](https://webassembly.github.io/spec/core/syntax/types.html)
	- **–** Types are making their way into many languages that we use today and are growing in popularity: Typescript, Python, Rust

## **References**

<span id="page-7-0"></span>Benjamin C Pierce. *Types and programming languages*. MIT press, 2002.