



# 编程语言的设计原理

## Design Principles of Programming Languages

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# Chapter 13: Reference

Why reference

Evaluation

Typing

Store Typings

Safety



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# Why & What References



# Computational Effects

Also known as *side effects*.

A *function* or *expression* is said to have a **side effect** if, in addition to returning a value, it also **modifies some state** or has an **observable interaction with** calling functions or the outside world.

- modify a *global variable* or *static variable*, modify *one of its arguments*,
- *raise an exception*,
- *write* data to a *display* or file, *read* data, or
- call other *side-effecting functions*.

In the presence of side effects, a program's **behavior** may depend on *history*; i.e., the *order of evaluation* matters.



# Computational Effects

Side effects are the *most common way* that a program *interacts with the outside world* (people, file systems, other computers on networks).

The degree to which *side effects are used* depends on the *programming paradigm*.

- *Imperative programming* is known for *its frequent utilization* of side effects.
- In *functional programming*, side effects are *rarely used*.
  - Functional languages like *Standard ML*, *Scheme* and *Scala* do not restrict side effects, but it is customary for programmers to avoid them.
  - The functional language *Haskell* expresses side effects such as I/O and other stateful computations using *monadic* actions.



# Mutability

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So far, what we have discussed does not yet include *side effects* .

In particular, whenever we defined function, we *never changed variables or data*. Rather, we always computed *new data*.

- E.g., the operations to *insert an item* into the data structure *didn't effect the old copy* of the data structure. Instead, we *always built a new data structure* with the item appropriately inserted.

For the most part, programming in a functional style (i.e., *without side effects*) is a "good thing" because it's *easier to reason locally about the behavior* of the program.



# Mutability

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*Writing values into memory locations* is the **fundamental mechanism** of imperative languages such as C/C++.

Mutable structures are

- required to implement many *efficient algorithms*.
- also very convenient to represent the *current state of a state machine*.



# Mutability

In most programming languages, *variables are mutable*, i.e., a variable provides both

- *a name* that refers to a previously calculated value, and
- *the possibility of overwriting this value* with another (which will be referred to by the same name)

In some languages (e.g., OCaml), these features are *separate*:

- *variables are only for naming* — the binding between a variable and its value is immutable
- introduce a *new class of mutable values* (called *reference cells* or *references*)
  - at any given moment, a reference *holds a value* (and can be dereferenced to obtain this value)
  - *a new value* may be assigned to a reference





# Basic Examples

```
#let r = ref 5
```

```
val r : int ref = {contents = 5}
```

```
// The value of r is a reference to a cell that always contain a number.
```

```
# r := !r + 3
```

```
??
```

```
# !r
```

```
-: int = 8
```

```
(r := succ(!r); !r)
```



# Basic Examples

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```
# let flag = ref true;;
```

```
-val flag: bool ref = {contents = true}
```

```
# if !flag then 1 else 2;;
```

```
-: int = 1
```



# Reference

## Basic operations

- allocation            ref (operator)
- dereferencing        !
- assignment           :=

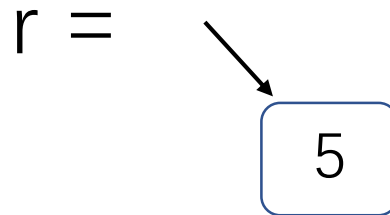
Is there any difference between the expressions of ?

- $5 + 3;$
- $r := 8;$
- $(r := \text{succ}(!r); !r)$
- $(r := \text{succ}(!r); (r := \text{succ}(!r); (r := \text{succ}(!r); !r))$

## sequencing

# Reference

A value of type `ref T` is a *pointer* to a cell holding a value of type `T`



Exercise 13.1.1 :

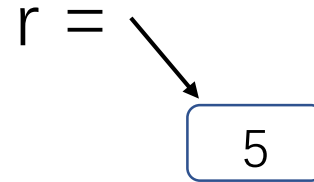
Draw a similar diagram **showing the effects** of evaluating the expressions

$a = \{\text{ref } 0, \text{ref } 0\}$

$b = (\lambda x:\text{Ref Nat. } \{x, x\}) (\text{ref } 0)$

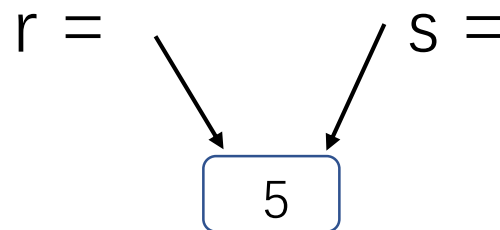
# Aliasing

A value of type `ref T` is a *pointer* to a cell holding a value of type `T`



If this value is “*copied*” by assigning it to another variable: `s = r;`

*the cell* pointed to *is not copied*. (`r` and `s` are *aliases*)



We can change `r` by assigning to `s`:

`(s:=10; !r)`



# Aliasing all around us

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Reference cells are *not the only language feature* that introduces the possibility of *aliasing*

- arrays
- communication channels (shared state—between different parts of a program.)
  - I/O devices (disks, etc.)

# The difficulties of aliasing

- The possibility of aliasing *invalidates* all sorts of useful forms of *reasoning about programs*, both *by programmers*:

e.g.,  $\lambda r: Ref\ Nat. \lambda s: Ref\ Nat. (r := 2; s := 3; !r)$

always returns **2** unless *r* and *s* are aliases

and *by compilers* :

*Code motion out of loops*, *common sub-expression elimination*, *allocation of variables to registers*, and *detection of uninitialized variables* all depend upon the compiler knowing *which objects a load or a store operation could reference*.

- High-performance compilers *spend significant energy* on *alias analysis* to try to establish when different variables cannot possibly refer to the same storage



# The benefits of aliasing

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The *problems of aliasing* have led some language designers simply to disallow it (e.g., Haskell).

However, there are **good reasons** why most languages do provide constructs involving aliasing:

- efficiency (e.g., arrays)
- shared resources (e.g., locks) in concurrent systems
- “action at a distance” (e.g., symbol tables)
- .....





# Example

$c = \text{ref } 0$

$\text{incc} = \lambda x: \text{Unit}. (c := \text{succ}(!c); !c)$

$\text{decc} = \lambda x: \text{Unit}. (c := \text{pred}(!c); !c)$

$\text{incc } \text{unit}$

$\text{decc } \text{unit}$

$o = \{i = \text{incc}, d = \text{decc}\}$

```
let newcounter = o
  λ.Unit.
    let c = ref 0 in
      let incc = λx: Unit. (c := succ(!c); !c) in
        let decc = λx: Unit. (c := pred(!c); !c) in
          let o = {i = incc, d = decc} in
            o
```

# Example

- Reference values of any type, including functions.

```
NatArray = Ref (Nat→Nat);
```

```
newarray = λ_:Unit. ref (λn:Nat.0);  
          : Unit → NatArray
```

```
lookup = λa:NatArray. λn:Nat. (!a) n;  
         : NatArray → Nat → Nat
```

```
update = λa:NatArray. λm:Nat. λv:Nat.  
         let oldf = !a in  
         a := (λn:Nat. if equal m n then v else oldf n);  
         : NatArray → Nat → Nat → Unit
```

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# How to enrich the language with the new mechanism?

# Syntax



... plus other familiar types, in examples

<code>t ::=</code>	<i>terms</i>
<code>unit</code>	<i>unit constant</i>
<code>x</code>	<i>variable</i>
<code>λx:T.t</code>	<i>abstraction</i>
<code>t t</code>	<i>application</i>
<code>ref t</code>	<i>reference creation</i>
<code>!t</code>	<i>dereference</i>
<code>t:=t</code>	<i>assignment</i>

# Typing rules

$$\frac{\Gamma \vdash t_1 : T_1}{\Gamma \vdash \text{ref } t_1 : \text{Ref } T_1} \quad (\text{T-REF})$$

$$\frac{\Gamma \vdash t_1 : \text{Ref } T_1}{\Gamma \vdash !t_1 : T_1} \quad (\text{T-DEREF})$$

$$\frac{\Gamma \vdash t_1 : \text{Ref } T_1 \quad \Gamma \vdash t_2 : T_1}{\Gamma \vdash t_1 := t_2 : \text{Unit}} \quad (\text{T-ASSIGN})$$

- **type system**

- **a set of rules** that *assigns a property* called *type* to the various “constructs” of a computer program, such as
- *variables, expressions, functions or modules*



# Evaluation

What is the value of the expression `ref 0` ?

Is

`r = ref 0`

`s = ref 0`

and

`r = ref 0`

`s = r`

behave the same?

*Crucial observation*: evaluating `ref 0` must *do* something ?

Specifically, evaluating `ref 0` should *allocate some storage* and yield a *reference* (or *pointer*) to that storage

So *what* is a reference?



# The store

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A reference names a *location* in the run-time *store* (also known as the *heap* or just the *memory*)

What is the **store**?

- *Concretely*: an array of *8-bit bytes*, indexed by 32/64-bit integers
- *More abstractly*: an array of *values*, abstracting away from the different sizes of the runtime representations of different values
- *Even more abstractly*: a *partial function* from *locations* to *values*
  - set of store locations



# Locations

A reference is a location : an abstract index into the store

Syntax of *values*:

$v ::=$

unit

$\lambda x:T.t$

$/$

*values*

*unit constant*

*abstraction value*

*store location*

... and since all *values* are *terms* ...