



CSE341: Programming Languages

Lecture 12 Equivalence

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Last Topic of Unit

More careful look at what “two pieces of code are **equivalent**” means

- Fundamental software-engineering idea
- Made easier with
 - Abstraction (hiding things)
 - Fewer side effects

Not about any “new ways to code something up”

Equivalence

Must reason about “are these equivalent” *all the time*

- The more precisely you think about it the better
- *Code maintenance*: Can I simplify this code?
- *Backward compatibility*: Can I add new features without changing how any old features work?
- *Optimization*: Can I make this code faster?
- *Abstraction*: Can an external client tell I made this change?

To focus discussion: When can we say two functions are equivalent, even without looking at all calls to them?
– May not know all the calls (e.g., we are editing a library)

A definition

Two functions are equivalent if they have the same “observable behavior” no matter how they are used anywhere in any program

Given equivalent arguments, they:

- Produce equivalent results
- Have the same (non-)termination behavior
- Mutate (non-local) memory in the same way
- Do the same input/output
- Raise the same exceptions

Notice it is much easier to be equivalent if:

- There are fewer possible arguments, e.g., with a type system and abstraction
- We avoid *side-effects*: mutation, input/output, and exceptions

Example

Since looking up variables in ML has no side effects, these two functions are equivalent:

```

fun f x = x + x      =      val y = 2
                           fun f x = y * x

```

But these next two are not equivalent in general: it depends on what is passed for *f*

- Are equivalent *if* argument for *f* has no side-effects

```

fun g (f, x) =      ≠      val y = 2
  (f x) + (f x)      fun g (f, x) =
                    y * (f x)

```

- Example: `g ((fn i => print "hi" ; i), 7)`
- Great reason for “pure” functional programming

Another example

These are equivalent *only if* functions bound to *g* and *h* do not raise exceptions or have side effects (printing, updating state, etc.)

- Again: pure functions make more things equivalent

```

fun f x =          ≠          fun f x =
  let              let
    val y = g x    val z = h x
    val z = h x    val y = g x
  in
    (y, z)        in
  end              end

```

- Example: *g* divides by 0 and *h* mutates a top-level reference
- Example: *g* writes to a reference that *h* reads from

Syntactic sugar

Using or not using syntactic sugar is always equivalent
– By definition, else not syntactic sugar

Example:

```
fun f x =  
  x andalso g x  
=  
fun f x =  
  if x  
  then g x  
  else false
```

But be careful about evaluation order

```
fun f x =  
  x andalso g x  
≠  
fun f x =  
  if g x  
  then x  
  else false
```

Standard equivalences

Three general equivalences that always work for functions
– In any (?) decent language

1. Consistently rename bound variables and uses

```
val y = 14  
fun f x = x+y+x  
=  
val y = 14  
fun f z = z+y+z
```

But notice you can't use a variable name already used in the function body to refer to something else

```
val y = 14  
fun f x = x+y+x  
≠  
val y = 14  
fun f y = y+y+y
```

```
fun f x =  
  let val y = 3  
  in x+y end  
≠  
fun f y =  
  let val y = 3  
  in y+y end
```

Standard equivalences

Three general equivalences that always work for functions
– In (any?) decent language

2. Use a helper function or do not

```
val y = 14  
fun g z = (z+y+z)+z  
=  
val y = 14  
fun f x = x+y+x  
fun g z = (f z)+z
```

But notice you need to be careful about environments

```
val y = 14  
val y = 7  
fun g z = (z+y+z)+z  
≠  
val y = 14  
fun f x = x+y+x  
val y = 7  
fun g z = (f z)+z
```

Standard equivalences

Three general equivalences that always work for functions
– In (any?) decent language

3. Unnecessary function wrapping

```
fun f x = x+x  
fun g y = f y  
=  
fun f x = x+x  
val g = f
```

But notice that if you compute the function to call and *that computation* has side-effects, you have to be careful

```
fun f x = x+x  
fun h () = (print "hi";  
           f)  
fun g y = (h()) y  
≠  
fun f x = x+x  
fun h () = (print "hi";  
           f)  
val g = (h())
```

One more

If we ignore types, then ML let-bindings can be syntactic sugar for calling an anonymous function:

```
let val x = e1  
in e2 end  
(fn x => e2) e1
```

- These both evaluate e_1 to v_1 , then evaluate e_2 in an environment extended to map x to v_1
- So *exactly* the same evaluation of expressions and result

But in ML, there is a type-system difference:

- x on the left can have a polymorphic type, but not on the right
- Can always go from right to left
- If x need not be polymorphic, can go from left to right

What about performance?

According to our definition of equivalence, these two functions are equivalent, but we learned one is awful

- (Actually we studied this before pattern-matching)

```
fun max xs =  
  case xs of  
    [] => raise Empty  
  | x::[] => x  
  | x::xs' =>  
    if x > max xs'  
    then x  
    else max xs'
```

```
fun max xs =  
  case xs of  
    [] => raise Empty  
  | x::[] => x  
  | x::xs' =>  
    let  
      val y = max xs'  
    in  
      if x > y  
      then x  
      else y  
    end
```

Different definitions for different jobs

- **PL Equivalence (341)**: given same inputs, same outputs and effects
 - Good: Lets us replace bad **max** with good **max**
 - Bad: Ignores performance in the extreme
- **Asymptotic equivalence (332)**: Ignore constant factors
 - Good: Focus on the algorithm and efficiency for large inputs
 - Bad: Ignores “four times faster”
- **Systems equivalence (333)**: Account for constant overheads, performance tune
 - Good: Faster means different and better
 - Bad: Beware overtuning on “wrong” (e.g., small) inputs; definition does not let you “swap in a different algorithm”

Claim: Computer scientists implicitly (?) use all three every (?) day