

CMSC 330: Organization of Programming Languages

Functional Programming with OCaml

What is a functional language?

A functional language:

- defines computations as **mathematical functions**
- discourages use of mutable **state**

x = x + 1 ?

Functional vs. Imperative Programming

- Imperative programming
 - focuses on how to execute, defines **control flow** as statements that change a **program state**.
- Functional programming
 - treats programs as evaluating mathematical functions and avoids state and mutable data

Imperative Programming

Commands specify **how** to compute, by destructively **changing state**:

```
x = x+1;  
a[i] = 42;  
p.next = p.next.next;
```

The **fantasy** of changing state(mutability):

- It's easy to reason about: the machine does this, then this...
- **Machines are good** at complicated manipulation of state

Imperative Programming: Reality

Thread 1 on CPU 1

```
x = x+1;  
a[i] = 42;  
p.next = p.next.next;
```

Thread 2 on CPU 2

```
x = x+1;  
a[i] = 42;  
p.next = p.next.next;
```

- There is **no single state**
 - Programs have **many threads**, spread across many cores, spread across **many processors**, spread across **many computers**...
 - each with its **own view of memory**

Imperative Programming

Functions/methods have **side effects**:

```
int cnt = 0; //global
```

```
int f(Node *r) {  
    r->data = cnt;  
    cnt++;  
    return cnt;  
}
```

- mutability **breaks** referential transparency: ability to replace an expression with its value without affecting the result.

$$f(x) + f(x) + f(x) \neq 3 f(x)$$

Functional vs. Imperative

Functional languages:

- *Higher* level of abstraction
- *Easier* to develop robust software
- *Immutable* state: easier to reason about software

Imperative languages:

- *Lower* level of abstraction
- *Harder* to develop robust software
- *Mutable* state: harder to reason about software

Functional programming

Expressions specify **what** to compute

- **Variables never change** value
 - Like mathematical variables
- Functions (almost) **never have side effects**

The **reality of **immutability**:**

- No need to think about state
- Easier (and more powerful) ways to build **correct** programs and concurrent programs

Key Features of ML

- First-class functions
 - Functions can be parameters to other functions (“higher order”) and return values, and stored as data
- Favor immutability (“assign once”)
- Data types and pattern matching
 - Convenient for certain kinds of data structures
- Type inference
 - No need to write types in the source language
 - But the language is statically typed
 - Supports parametric polymorphism
 - *Generics* in Java, *templates* in C++
- Like Ruby, Java, ...: exceptions and garbage collection

Why study functional programming?

Functional languages predict the future:

- Garbage collection
 - Java [1995], LISP [1958]
- Parametric polymorphism (generics)
 - Java 5 [2004], ML [1990]
- Higher-order functions
 - C#3.0 [2007], Java 8 [2014], LISP [1958]
- Type inference
 - C++11 [2011], Java 7 [2011] and 8, ML [1990]
- Pattern matching
 - ML [1990], Scala [2002], Java X [201?]
 - <http://cr.openjdk.java.net/~briangoetz/amber/pattern-match.html>

Why study functional programming?

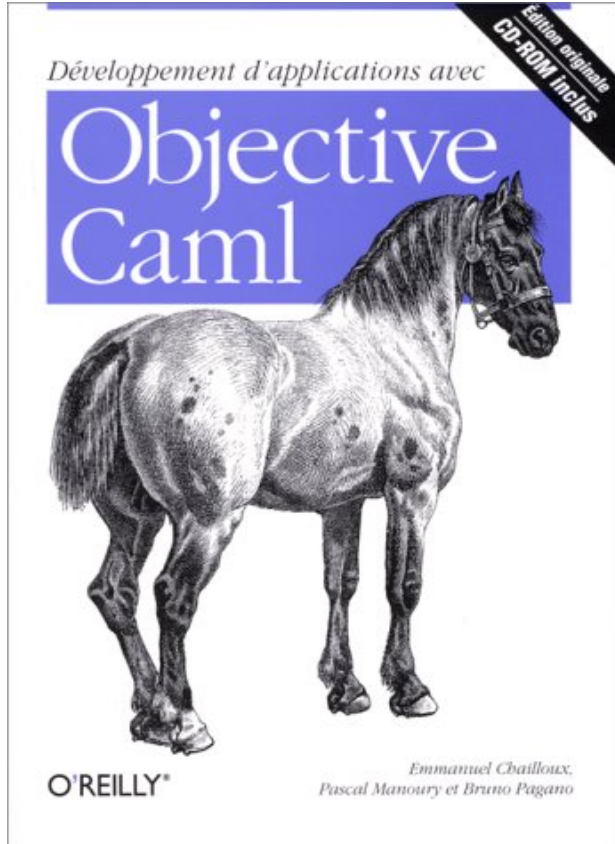
Functional languages in the real world

- **Java 8** 
- **F#, C# 3.0, LINQ**  Microsoft
- **Scala**   **LinkedIn** 
- **Haskell**    at&t
- **Erlang**   
- **OCaml**  **Bloomberg** 
<https://ocaml.org/learn/companies.html>  Jane Street

ML-style (Functional) Languages

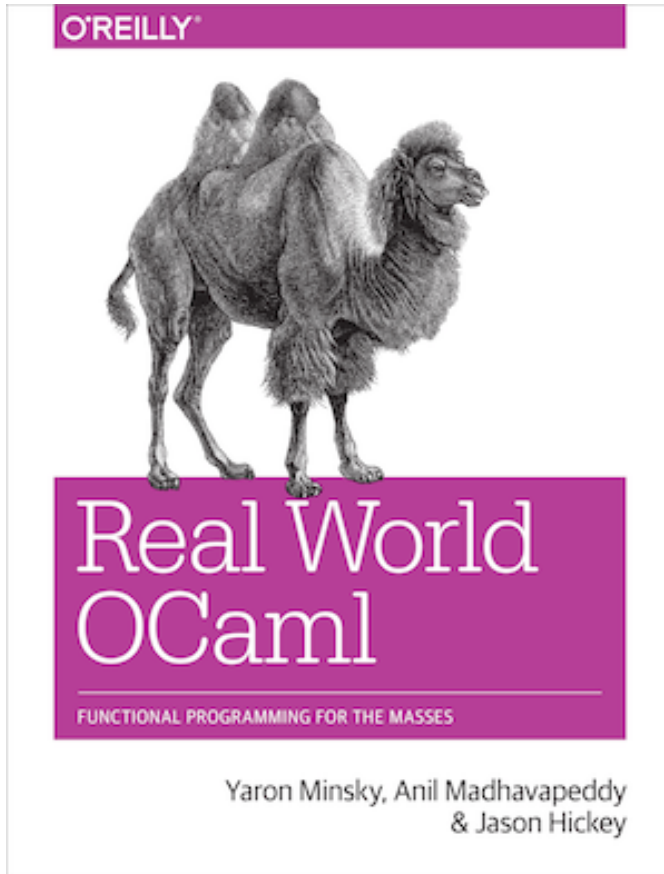
- ML (Meta Language)
 - Univ. of Edinburgh, 1973
 - Part of a theorem proving system LCF
- Standard ML
 - Bell Labs and Princeton, 1990; Yale, AT&T, U. Chicago
- OCaml (Objective CAML)
 - INRIA, 1996
 - French Nat'l Institute for Research in Computer Science
 - O is for “objective”, meaning objects (which we'll ignore)
- Haskell (1998): *lazy* functional programming
- Scala (2004): functional and OO programming

Useful Information on OCaml language



- Translation available on the class webpage
 - *Developing Applications with Objective Caml*
- Webpage also has link to another book
 - *Introduction to the Objective Caml Programming Language*

More Information on OCaml



- Book designed to introduce **and advance** understanding of OCaml
 - Authors use OCaml in the real world
 - Introduces new libraries, tools
- Free HTML online
 - realworldocaml.org

Coding Guidelines

- We will not grade on style, but style is important
- Recommended coding guidelines:
- <https://ocaml.org/learn/tutorials/guidelines.html>

Working with OCaml

OCaml Compiler

- OCaml programs can be compiled using `ocamlc`
 - Produces `.cmo` (“compiled object”) and `.cmi` (“compiled interface”) files
 - We’ll talk about interface files later
 - By default, also links to produce executable `a.out`
 - Use `-o` to set output file name
 - Use `-c` to compile only to `.cmo/.cmi` and not to link
- Can also compile with `ocamlopt`
 - Produces `.cmx` files, which contain native code
 - Faster, but not platform-independent (or as easily debugged)

OCaml Compiler

- Compiling and running the following small program:

hello.ml:

```
(* A small OCaml program *)  
print_string "Hello world!\n";;
```

```
% ocamlc hello.ml
```

```
% ./a.out
```

```
Hello world!
```

```
%
```

OCaml Compiler: Multiple Files

main.ml:

```
let main () =  
  print_int (Util.add 10 20);  
  print_string "\n"  
  
let () = main ()
```

util.ml:

```
let add x y = x+y
```

- Compile both together (produces a.out)
 `ocamlc util.ml main.ml`
- Or compile separately
 `ocamlc -c util.ml`
 `ocamlc util.cmo main.ml`
- To execute
 `./a.out`

OCaml Top-level

- The *top-level* is a read-eval-print loop (REPL) for OCaml
 - Like Ruby's `irb`

- Start the top-level with the `ocaml` command:

```
ocaml
      OCaml version 4.07.0
      # print_string "Hello world!\n";;
      Hello world!
      - : unit = ()
      #
```

- To exit the top-level, type `^D` (Control D) or call the `exit 0`
`exit 0;;`

OCaml Top-level (cont'd)

Expressions can also be typed and evaluated at the top-level:

```
# 3 + 4;;  
- : int = 7  
  
# let x = 37;;  
val x : int = 37
```

```
# x;;  
- : int = 37
```

```
# let y = 5;;  
val y : int = 5
```

```
# let z = 5 + x;;  
val z : int = 42
```

```
# print_int z;;  
42- : unit = ()
```

```
# print_string "Colorless green ideas sleep furiously";;  
Colorless green ideas sleep furiously- : unit = ()
```

```
# print_int "Colorless green ideas sleep furiously";;  
This expression has type string but is here used with type int
```

gives type and value of each expr

"-" = "the expression you just typed"

unit = "no interesting value" (like void)

Loading Files in the Top-level

File `hello.ml` :

```
print_string "Hello world!\n";;
```

- Load a file into top-level

```
#use "filename.ml"
```

- Example:

```
# #use "hello.ml";;
```



#use loads in a file one line at a time

```
Hello world!
```

```
- : unit = ()
```

```
#
```

OPAM: OCaml Package Manager

- `opam` is the package manager for OCaml
 - Manages libraries and different compiler installations
- We recommend installing the following packages with `opam`
 - OUnit, a testing framework similar to minitest
 - Utop, a top-level interface similar to `irb`
 - Dune, a build system for larger projects

Ocamlbuild: Smart Project Building

- Use `ocamlbuild` to compile larger projects and automatically find dependencies
- Build a bytecode executable out of `main.ml` and its local dependencies

`ocamlbuild main.byte`

- The executable `main.byte` is in `_build` folder. To execute:

`./main.byte`

Dune: Smarter Project Building

- Use **dune** to compile larger projects and automatically find dependencies
- Define a dune file, similar to a Makefile:

dune:

```
(executable  
  (name main))
```

Indicates that an executable (rather than a library) is to be built.
Name of main file (entry point)

```
% dune build main.exe  
% _build/default/main.exe  
30  
%
```

Check out

<https://medium.com/@bobbypriambodo/starting->

Dune commands

- If defined, run a project's test suite:

`dune runtest`

- Load the modules defined in `src/` into the `utop` top-level interface:

`dune utop src`

- `utop` is a replacement for `ocaml` that includes dependent files, so they don't have to be `#loaded`

A Note on ;;

- ;; ends an expression in the top-level of OCaml
 - Use it to say: “Give me the value of this expression”
 - Not used in the body of a function
 - Not needed after each function definition
 - Though for now it won’t hurt if used there
- There is also a single semi-colon ; in OCaml
 - But we won’t need it for now
 - It’s only useful when programming imperatively, i.e., with side effects
 - Which we won’t do for a while

OCaml Expressions and Functions

Lecture Presentation Style

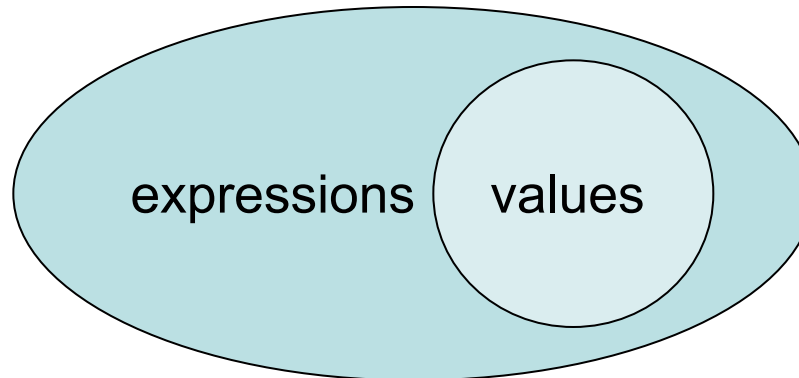
- Our focus: **semantics** and **idioms** for OCaml
 - *Semantics* is what the language does
 - *Idioms* are ways to use the language well
- We will also cover some useful **libraries**
- **Syntax** is what you type, not what you mean
 - In one lang: Different syntax for similar concepts
 - Across langs: Same syntax for different concepts
 - Syntax can be a source of fierce disagreement among language designers!

Expressions

- **Expressions** are our primary building block
 - Akin to *statements* in imperative languages
- Every kind of expression has
 - **Syntax**
 - We use metavariable **e** to designate an arbitrary expression
 - **Semantics**
 - **Type checking** rules (static semantics): produce a type or fail with an error message
 - **Evaluation** rules (dynamic semantics): produce a value
 - (or an exception or infinite loop)
 - Used *only* on expressions that type-check

Values

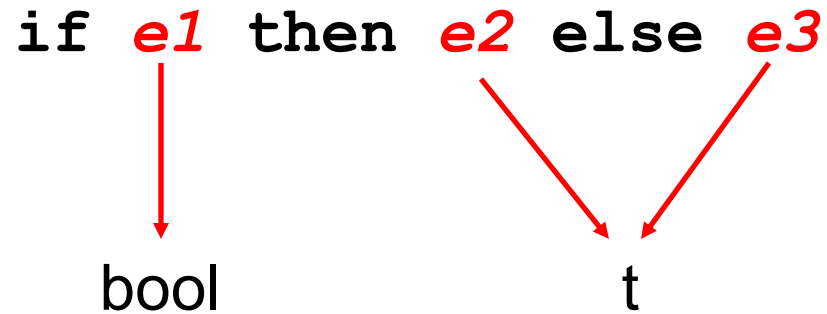
- A **value** is an expression that is final
 - **Evaluating** an expression means running it until it becomes a value
 - We use metavariable **v** to designate an arbitrary value
- **34** is a value, **true** is a value
- **34+17** is an *expression*, but *not* a value
 - It *evaluates* to 51



Types

- **Types** classify expressions
 - The set of values an expression could evaluate to
 - We use metavariable ***t*** to designate an arbitrary type
 - Examples include `int`, `bool`, `string`, and more.
- Expression ***e*** has type ***t*** if ***e*** will (always) evaluate to a value of type ***t***
 - `{ ..., -1, 0, 1, ... }` are values of type `int`
 - `34+17` is an expression of type `int`, since it evaluates to `51`, which has type `int`
 - Write ***e* : *t*** to say ***e*** has type ***t***
 - Determining that ***e*** has type ***t*** is called **type checking** (or simply, **typing**)

If Expressions



If Expressions: Examples

```
# if 7 > 42 then "hello" else "goodbye";;  
- : string = "goodbye"
```

```
# if true then 3 else 4;;  
- : int = 3
```

```
# if false then 3 else 3.0;;
```

Error: This expression has type **float** but
an expression was expected of type **int**

Quiz 1

To what value does this expression evaluate?

```
if 10 < 0 then 2 else 1
```

A. 2

B. 1

C. 0

D. none of the above

Quiz 1

To what value does this expression evaluate?

```
if 22<0 then 2 else 1
```

A. 2

B. 1

C. 0

D. none of the above

Quiz 2

To what value does this expression evaluate?

if 22<0 then 2020 else "Uyghurs"

A. 2

B. 1

C. 0

D. none of the above

Quiz 2

To what value does this expression evaluate?

```
if 22<0 then 2020 else "Uyghurs"
```

A. 2

B. 1

C. 0

D. none of the above: doesn't type check so never gets a chance to be evaluated

Function Definitions

- OCaml functions are like mathematical functions

- Compute a result from provided arguments

```
(* requires n>=0 *)
(* returns: n! *)
let rec fact n =
  if n = 0 then
    1
  else
    n * fact (n-1)
```

function
body

Use `(*)` for comments
(may nest)

Parameter
(type inferred)

`rec` needed for recursion
(else `fact` not in scope)

Structural equality

Line breaks, spacing
ignored
(like C, C++, Java, not like Ruby)

Type Inference

- As we just saw, a declared variable need not be annotated with its type
 - The type can be **inferred**

```
(* requires n>=0 *)  
(* returns: n! *)  
let rec fact n =  
  if n = 0 then  
    1  
  else  
    n * fact (n-1)
```

n's type is **int. Why?**

= is an infix function that takes two **ints** and returns a **bool**; so **n** must be an **int** for **n = 0** to type check

- **Type inference** happens *as a part of type checking*
 - Determines a type that satisfies code's constraints

Function Types

- In OCaml, `->` is the function type constructor
 - Type `t1 -> t` is a function with argument or *domain* type `t1` and return or *range* type `t`
 - Type `t1 -> t2 -> t` is a function that takes *two* inputs, of types `t1` and `t2`, and returns a value of type `t`. Etc.

- Examples

- `let next x = x + 1` (* type int -> int *)
 - `let fn x = (int_of_float x) * 3` (* type float -> int *)
 - `fact` (* type int -> int *)

Type Checking Functions

- Syntax `let rec f x1 ... xn = e`
- Type checking
 - Conclude that $f : t1 \rightarrow \dots \rightarrow tn \rightarrow u$ if $e : u$ under the following assumptions:
 - $x1 : t1, \dots, xn : tn$ (arguments with their types)
 - $f : t1 \rightarrow \dots \rightarrow tn \rightarrow u$ (for recursion)

```
let rec fact n =  
  if n = 0 then  
    1  
  else  
    n * fact (n-  
1)
```

Calling Functions

Example evaluation

- `fact 2`
 - `if 2=0 then 1 else 2*fact(2-1)`
 - `2 * fact 1`
 - `2 * (if 1=0 then 1 else 1*fact(1-1))`
 - `2 * 1 * fact 0`
 - `2 * 1 * (if 0=0 then 1 else 0*fact(0-1))`
 - `2 * 1 * 1`
 - `2`

```
let rec fact n =  
  if n = 0 then  
    1  
  else  
    n * fact (n-1)
```

Type Annotations

- The syntax `(e : t)` asserts that “*e* has type *t*”
 - This can be added (almost) anywhere you like

```
let (x : int) = 3
let z = (x : int) + 5
```

- Define functions' parameter and return types

```
let fn (x:int):float =
    (float_of_int x) *. 3.14
```

- Checked by compiler: Very useful for debugging

Quiz 3: What is the type of `foo 3 1`

```
let rec foo n m =  
  if n >= 9 || n < 0 then  
    m  
  else  
    m + 10
```

- a) Type Error
- b) `int`
- c) `float`
- d) `int -> int -> int`

Quiz 3: What is the type of `foo 3 1`

```
let rec foo n m =  
  if n >= 9 || n < 0 then  
    m  
  else  
    m + 10
```

- a) Type Error
- b) `int`**
- c) `float`
- d) `int -> int -> int`

Quiz 4: What is the value of `bar 4`

```
let rec bar(n:int):int =  
  if n = 0 || n = 1 then 1  
  else  
    bar (n-1) + bar (n-2)
```

- a) Syntax Error
- b) 4
- c) 5
- d) 8

Quiz 4: What is the value of `bar 4`

```
let rec bar(n:int):int =  
  if n = 0 || n = 1 then 1  
  else  
    bar (n-1) + bar (n-2)
```

- a) Syntax Error
- b) 4
- c) 5**
- d) 8