

# CMSC 330: Organization of Programming Languages

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## Functional Programming with OCaml

# What is a functional language?

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A functional language:

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

**State**: the information maintained by a computation

**Mutable**: can be changed

**x = x + 1 ?**

# Functional vs. Imperative

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## Functional languages

- *Higher* level of abstraction: *What* to compute, not *how*
- *Immutable* state: easier to reason about (meaning)
- *Easier* to develop robust software

## Imperative languages

- *Lower* level of abstraction: *How* to compute, not *what*
- *Mutable* state: harder to reason about (behavior)
- *Harder* to develop robust software

# Imperative Programming

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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...

## The reality?

- Machines are good at complicated manipulation of state
- **Humans are not** good at understanding it!

# Imperative Programming: Reality

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Functions/methods may **mutate** state, a **side effect**

```
int cnt = 0;

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

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

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

# Imperative Programming: Reality

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Worse: 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**

So: Can't look at one piece of code and reason about its behavior

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;
```

# Functional programming

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**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
- Can perform local reasoning, assume referential transparency

Easier to build **correct** programs

# ML-style (Functional) Languages

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- 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



# Key Features of ML

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- **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++
- **Exceptions** and **garbage collection**

# Why study functional programming?

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## Functional languages predict the future:

- Garbage collection
  - LISP [1958], Java [1995], Python 2 [2000], Go [2007]
- Parametric polymorphism (generics)
  - ML [1973], SML [1990], Java 5 [2004], Rust [2010]
- Higher-order functions
  - LISP [1958], Haskell [1998], Python 2 [2000], Swift [2014]
- Type inference
  - ML [1973], C++11 [2011], Java 7 [2011], Rust [2010]
- Pattern matching
  - SML [1990], Scala [2002], Rust [2010], Java X [201?]
    - <http://cr.openjdk.java.net/~briangoetz/amber/pattern-match.html>

# Why study functional programming?

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## Functional languages in the real world

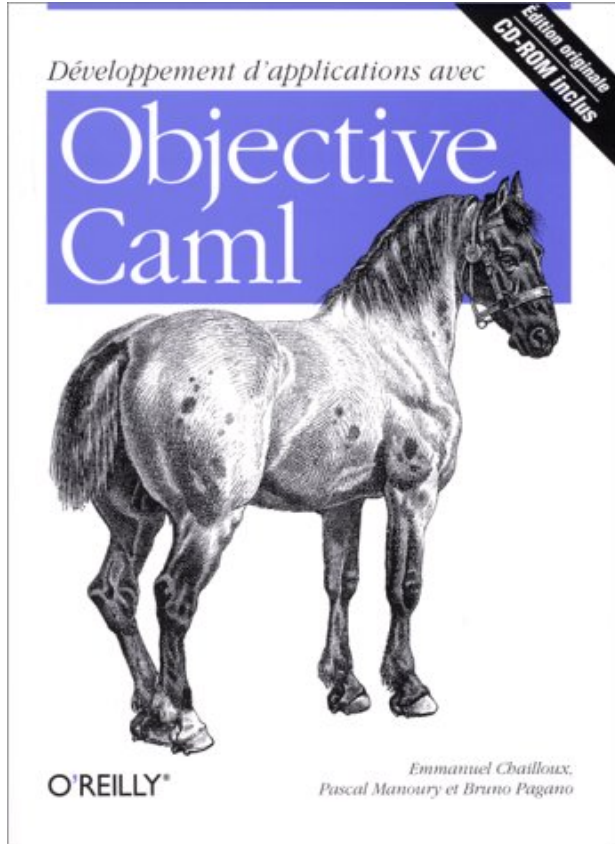
*This slide is old---now there are even more!*

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



# Useful Information on OCaml

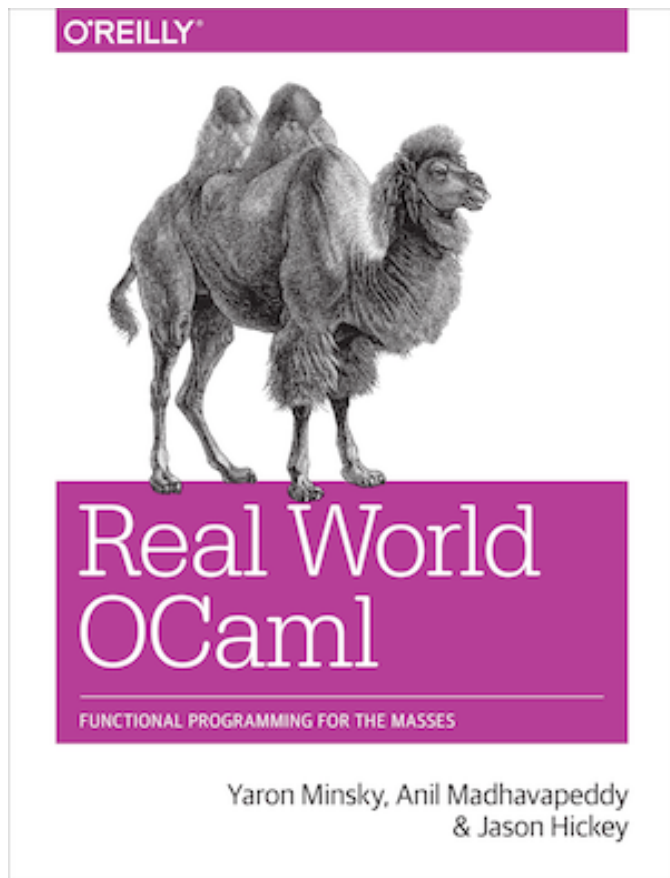
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- Translation available on the class webpage
  - *Developing Applications with Objective Caml*
- Webpage also has link to another book
  - *Introduction to the Objective Caml Programming Language*

# More Information on OCaml

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- 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](http://realworldocaml.org)

# OCaml Coding Guidelines

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

# CMSC 330: Organization of Programming Languages

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Working with OCaml

# OCaml Compiler

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- 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

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- 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

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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

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

- Start the top-level via the `ocaml` command

```
ocaml
```

```
OCaml version 4.07.0
```

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

```
Hello world!
```

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

```
# exit 0;;
```

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

`utop` is an alternative top-level; improves on `ocaml`

# OCaml Top-level

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Expressions can 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 Code Files into the Top-level

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File `hello.ml` :

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

- Load a file into top-level

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

- Example:  `#use` processes a file a line at a time

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

```
Hello world!
```

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

```
#
```

# OPAM: OCaml Package Manager

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- **opam** is the package manager for OCaml
  - Manages libraries and different compiler installations
- You should install 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

# Project Builds with dune

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- Use **dune** to compile projects---automatically finds dependencies, invokes compiler and linker
- 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-an-ocaml-app-project-using-dune-d4f74e291de8>

# Dune commands

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- 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

# CMSC 330: Organization of Programming Languages

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## OCaml Expressions, Functions

# Lecture Presentation Style

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- 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

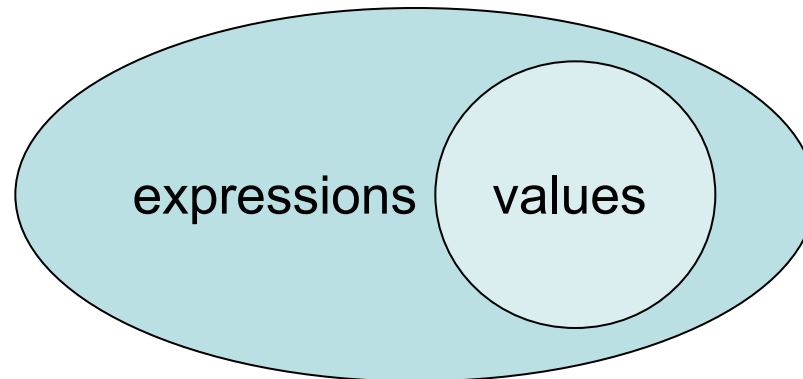
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- **Expressions** are our primary building block
  - Akin to *statements* in imperative languages
- Every kind of expression has
  - **Syntax**
    - We use metavariable  $e$  to designate an arbitrary expression
  - **Semantics**
    - **Type checking** 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

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



# Types

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- **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  $t$ 
  - `0`, `1`, and `-1` are values of type `int` while `true` has type `bool`
  - `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

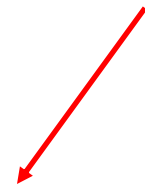
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- Syntax

$(\text{if } e_1 \text{ then } e_2 \text{ else } e_3) : t$



$: \text{bool}$



$: t$

*(each has the same type  $t$ )*

- Type checking

- Conclude  $\text{if } e_1 \text{ then } e_2 \text{ else } e_3$  has type  $t$  if

- $e_1$  has type  $\text{bool}$

- Both  $e_2$  and  $e_3$  have type  $t$  (for some  $t$ )

# If Expressions: Type Checking and Evaluation

---

```
# 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

- Evaluation (happens if type checking succeeds)
  - If  $e1$  evaluates to `true`, and if  $e2$  evaluates to  $v$ , then `if  $e1$  then  $e2$  else  $e3$`  evaluates to  $v$
  - If  $e1$  evaluates to `false`, and if  $e3$  evaluates to  $v$ , then `if  $e1$  then  $e2$  else  $e3$`  evaluates to  $v$



# 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 10 < 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 2021 else "home"
```

A. 2

B. 1

C. 0

D. none of the above

## Quiz 2

---

To what value does this expression evaluate?

```
if 22 < 0 then 2021 else "home"
```

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

# Calling Functions, *aka* Function Application

---

- **Syntax**  $f\ e_1 \dots e_n$ 
  - Parentheses not required around argument(s)
  - No commas; use spaces instead
- **Evaluation**
  - Find the definition of  $f$ 
    - i.e.,  $\text{let rec } f\ x_1 \dots x_n = e$
  - Evaluate arguments  $e_1 \dots e_n$  to values  $v_1 \dots v_n$
  - **Substitute** arguments  $v_1, \dots, v_n$  for params  $x_1, \dots, x_n$  in body  $e$ 
    - Call the resulting expression  $e'$
  - Evaluate  $e'$  to value  $v$ , which is the final result

# Calling Functions: Evaluation

## 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)
```

*Fun fact:* Evaluation order for function call arguments in OCaml is **right to left** (not left to right)



# 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

```
- not                (* type bool -> bool *)  
  
- int_of_float      (* type float -> int *)  
  
- +                 (* type int -> int -> int *)
```

# Type Checking: Calling Functions

---

- Syntax  $f\ e1 \dots en$
- Type checking
  - If  $f : t1 \rightarrow \dots \rightarrow tn \rightarrow u$
  - and  $e1 : t1,$
  - $\dots, en : tn$
  - then  $f\ e1 \dots en : u$
- Example:
  - `not true : bool`
  - since `not : bool -> bool`
  - and `true : bool`

# Type Checking: Defining 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))
```

$:bool$  assuming  $n:int$

$:int$  since  
 $fact(n-1):int$   
and  $(n-1):int$   
assuming  
 $fact:int \rightarrow int$

# Function Type Checking: More Examples

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

## Quiz 3: What is the type of `foo 3 1.5`

---

```
let rec foo n m =  
  if n >= 9 || n > 0 then  
    m  
  else  
    m +. 10.3
```

a) Type Error

b) `int`

c) `float`

d) `int -> int -> int`

`: float -> float -> float`



## Quiz 3: What is the type of `foo 3 1.5`

---

```
let rec foo n m =  
  if n >= 9 || n > 0 then  
    m  
  else  
    m +. 10.3
```

a) Type Error

b) `int`

c) `float`

d) `int -> int -> int`

`: float -> float -> float`



# Type Annotations

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- 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 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