

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**

State: the information maintained by a computation

Mutable: can be changed

x = x + 1 ?

Functional vs. Imperative

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

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

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

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

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

- 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

- 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?

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?

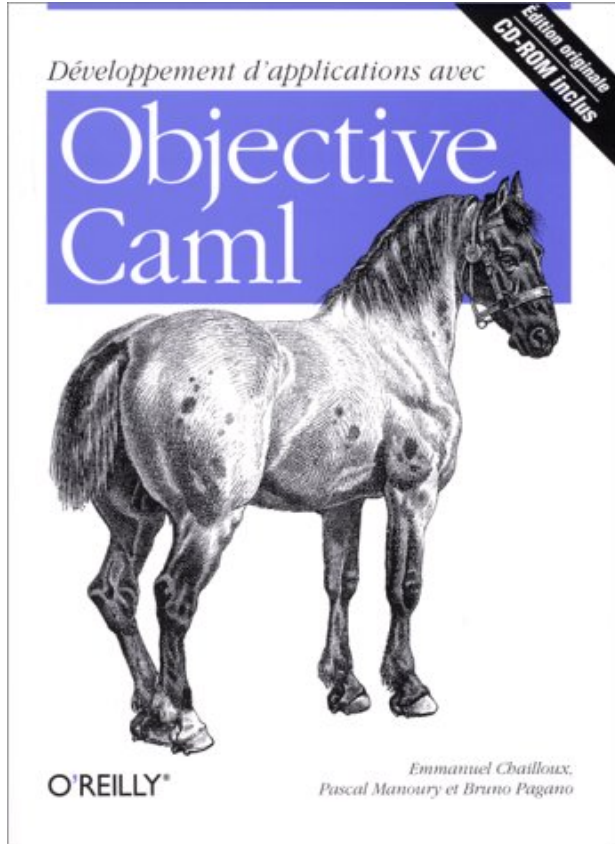
Functional languages in the real world

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



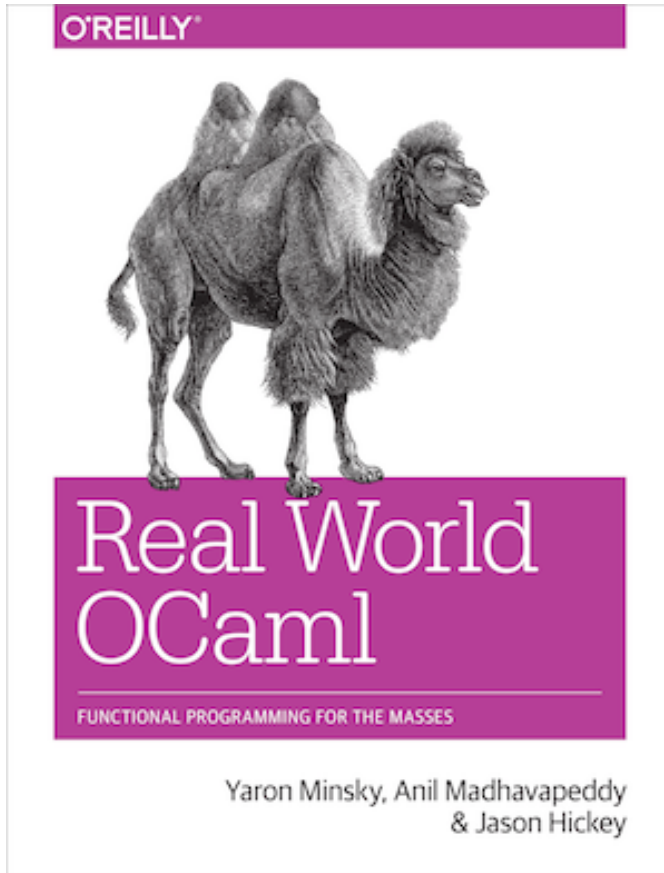
- **Java 8** 
 - **F#, C# 3.0, LINQ**  Microsoft
 - **Scala**   **LinkedIn** 
 - **Haskell**    at&t
 - **Erlang**    T-Mobile
 - **OCaml**  **Bloomberg**   Jane Street
- <https://ocaml.org/learn/companies.html>

Useful Information on OCaml



- 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

OCaml Coding Guidelines

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

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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 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

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

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

- **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

- 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

- 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

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OCaml Expressions, Functions

Lecture Presentation Style

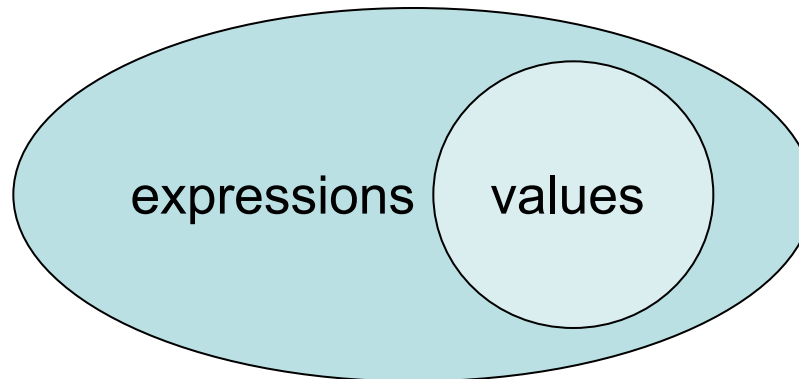
- Our focus: **semantics** and **idioms** for OCaml
 - *Semantics* is what the language does
 - *Idioms* are ways to use the language well
- We will also cover some useful **libraries**
- **Syntax** is what you type, not what you mean
 - In one lang: Different syntax for similar concepts
 - Across langs: 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
 - **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



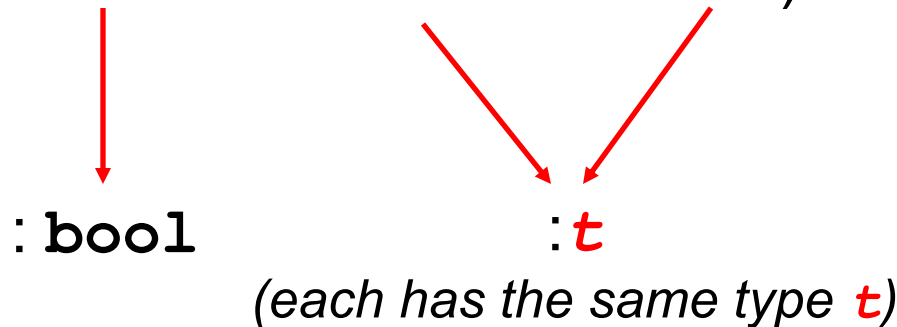
Types

- **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

- Syntax

$(\text{if } e1 \text{ then } e2 \text{ else } e3) : t$



- Type checking

- Conclude $\text{if } e1 \text{ then } e2 \text{ else } e3$ has type t if
 - $e1$ has type bool
 - Both $e2$ and $e3$ 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

The diagram shows an OCaml function definition for factorial. The code is enclosed in a black box. A blue box highlights the function body, which is the code between `if n = 0 then` and `else`. Red arrows point from text annotations to specific parts of the code:

- `(* requires n >= 0 *)`: Use `(* *)` for comments (may nest)
- `(* returns: n! *)`: Parameter (type inferred)
- `let rec fact n =`: `rec` needed for recursion (else `fact` not in scope)
- `if n = 0 then`: Structural equality
- `else`: Line breaks, spacing ignored (like C, C++, Java, not like Ruby)
- `n * fact (n-1)`: Line breaks, spacing ignored (like C, C++, Java, not like Ruby)

function body

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, \rightarrow is the function type constructor
 - Type $t1 \rightarrow t$ is a function with argument or *domain* type $t1$ and return or *range* type t
 - Type $t1 \rightarrow t2 \rightarrow t$ 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 $e1 : t1$,
 - ..., $en : tn$
 - 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

- `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

- 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