# 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)
```

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# 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;
```

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## 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)

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- Haskell (1998): lazy functional programming
- Scala (2004): functional and OO programming

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# 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?

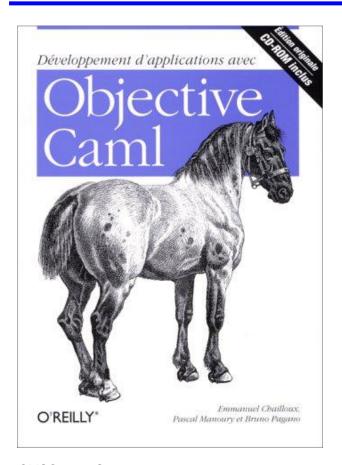
#### Functional languages in the real world

- Java 8 ORACLE®
- F#, C# 3.0, LINQ Microsoft
- Scala twitters foursquare Linked in
- Haskell facebook BARCLAYS at&t
- Erlang facebook amazon T Mobile

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

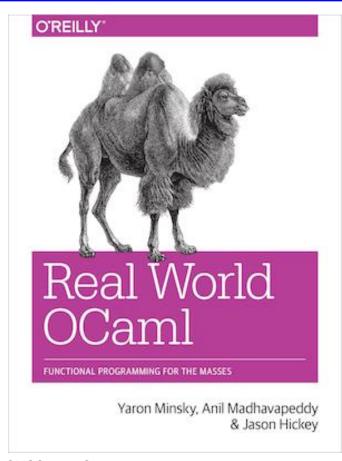


#### **Useful Information on OCaml**



- 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!
%
```

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## OCaml Compiler: Multiple Files

#### main.ml:

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

let () = main ()
```

# $\frac{\text{util.ml}}{\text{let add } x \ y = x+y}$

- 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**

ocaml

- 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 version 4.07.0
# print_string "Hello world!\n";;
Hello world!
- : unit = ()
# exit 0;;
```

utop is an alternative toplevel; improves on ocaml

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

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## **OCaml Top-level**

Expressions can be typed and evaluated at the top-level

```
#3+4;;
-: int = 7
                               gives type and value of each expr
# let x = 37;
val x : int = 37
                                  "-" = "the expression you just typed"
# x;;
-: int = 37
# let v = 5;;
val v : int = 5
\# \text{ let } z = 5 + x;;
val z : int = 42
                              unit = "no interesting value" (like void)
# 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
```

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## 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:

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 toplevel interface:

dune utop src

- utop is a replacement for ocam1 that includes
 dependent files, so they don't have be 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

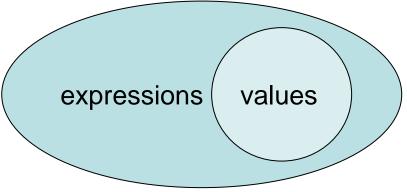
- Our focus: semantics and idioms for OCaml
  - Semantics is what the language does
  - Idioms are ways to use the language well
- We will also cover some useful libraries
- Syntax is what you type, not what you mean
  - In one lang: Different syntax for similar concepts
  - Across langs: Same syntax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

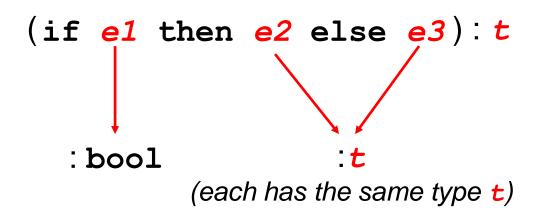


## **Types**

- 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



- Type checking
  - Conclude if e1 then e2 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

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

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

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

To what value does this expression evaluate?

if 22 < 0 then 2021 else "home"

A. 2

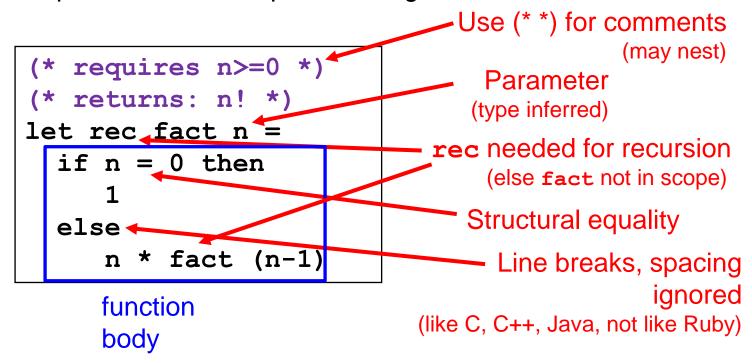
B. 1

**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



# 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 e1 ... en
  - Parentheses not required around argument(s)
  - No commas; use spaces instead
- Evaluation
  - Find the definition of f
    - i.e., let rec  $f \times 1 \dots \times n = e$
  - Evaluate arguments e1 ... en to values v1 ... vn
  - Substitute arguments v1, ... vn for params x1, ... xn in body e
    - Call the resulting expression e<sup>'</sup>
  - Evaluate e' to value v, which is the final result

# Calling Functions: Evaluation

#### **Example evaluation**

```
• fact 2
\triangleright if 2=0 then 1 else 2*fact(2-1)
> 2 * fact 1
\triangleright 2 * (if 1=0 then 1 else 1*fact(1-1))
> 2 * 1 * fact 0
\triangleright 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

# Type Checking: Calling Functions

- Syntax f e1 ... en
- Type checking

```
- If f:t1-> ... -> tn -> u
- and e1:t1,
- ..., en:tn
- then fe1 ... en: u
```

Example:

```
not true: boolsince not: bool -> booland true: bool
```

## Type Checking: Defining Functions

- Syntax let rec  $f \times 1 \dots \times n = e$
- Type checking
  - Conclude that f: t1 -> ... -> tn -> u if e: u under the following assumptions:
    - x1: t1, ..., xn: tn (arguments with their types)
    - f: t1 -> ... -> tn -> u (for recursion)

:bool assuming n:int

## Function Type Checking: More Examples

## 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

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-: 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

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-: 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