

# CMSC 330: Organization of Programming Languages

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## Functional Programming with OCaml

# Review: Interpreter & Compiler

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## Compiler:

- translates code written in a high-level programming language into a lower-level language
  - like assembly language, byte code, and machine code.
- it converts the code ahead of time before the program runs.
- we run the compiled to code to get the output
- Compiler optimizes the program

## Interpreter

- translates the code line-by-line when the program is running
- we get the output when the code completes.

# Review: Interpreter & Compiler

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## Optimization

```
int main(){
    int a = 1+2+3+4;
    return a;
}
```

```
% gcc -c a.c -o a.o
```

```
% objdump -d a.o
```

```
push    %rbp
mov     %rsp,%rbp
movl   $0xa,-0x4(%rbp)
mov     -0x4(%rbp),%eax
pop     %rbp
ret
```

$1+2+3+4 = 10 = 0xa$



# Review: Interpreter & Compiler

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- A simple OCaml Interpreter and Compiler Demo
  - ...
  
- We will learn:
  - Interpreter in CMSC330
  - Compiler in CMSC430

# 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

**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 16 [2021]
    - <http://cr.openjdk.java.net/~briangoetz/amber/pattern-match.html>

# Why study functional programming?

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## Functional languages in the real world

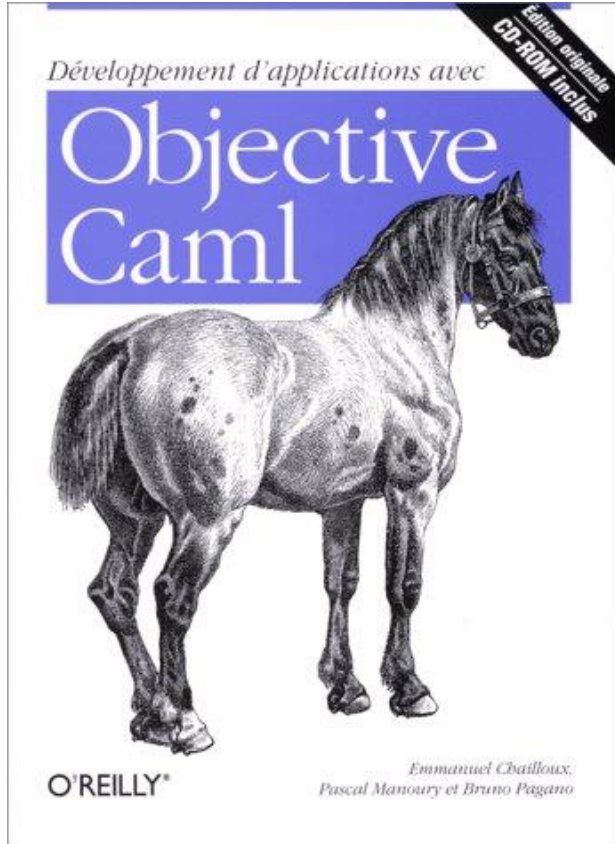
*This slide is old---now there are even more!*

- **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

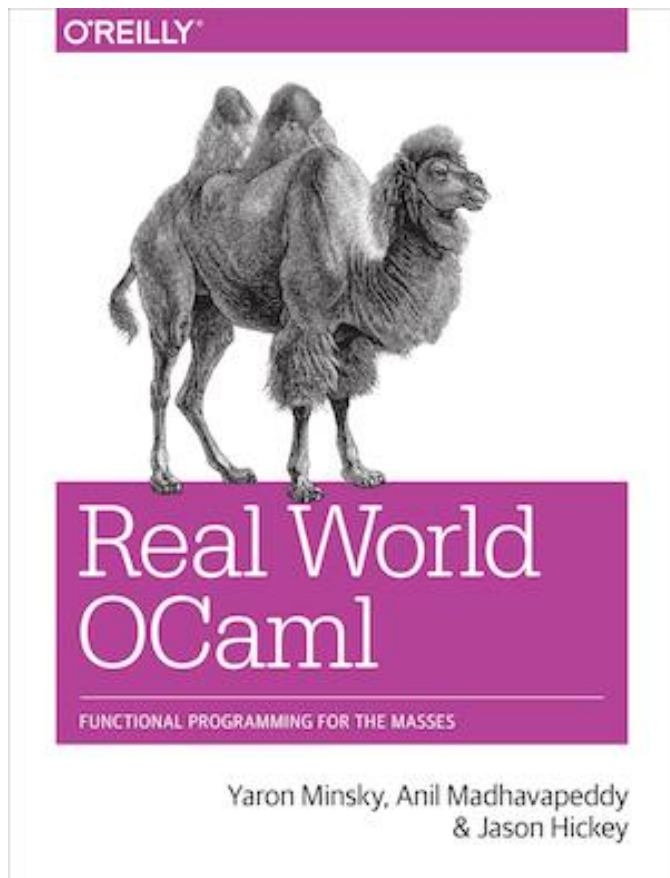
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- Translation available on the class webpage
  - *Developing Applications with Objective Caml*
- Webpage also has link to another book
  - *Introduction to the Objective Caml Programming Language*

# More Information on OCaml

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- Book designed to introduce **and advance** understanding of OCaml
  - Authors use OCaml in the real world (2<sup>nd</sup> edition)
  - Introduces new libraries, tools
- Free HTML online
  - [realworldocaml.org/](http://realworldocaml.org/)



# Similar Courses

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- CS3110 (Cornell)
- CSE341 (Washington)
- 601.426 (Johns Hopkins)
- COS326 (Princeton)
- CS152 (Harvard)
- CS421 (UIUC)

# Other Resources

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- [Cornell cs3110 book](#) is another course which uses OCaml; it is more focused on programming and less on PL theory than this class is.
- [ocaml.org](#) is the home of OCaml for finding downloads, documentation, etc. The [tutorials](#) are also very good and there is a page of [books](#).
- [OCaml from the very beginning](#) is a free online book.

# 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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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

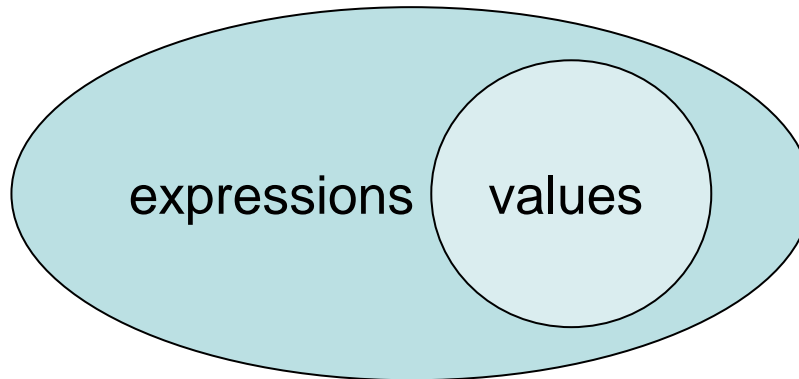
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- **Expressions** are our primary building block
  - Akin to *statements* in imperative languages
- Every kind of expression has
  - **Syntax**
    - We use metavariable **e** to designate an arbitrary expression
  - **Semantics**
    - **Type checking**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

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```
# 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  $e1 \Rightarrow \text{true}$ , and  $e2 \Rightarrow v$ , then  
     $\text{"if } e1 \text{ then } e2 \text{ else } e3" \Rightarrow v$
  - If  $e1 \Rightarrow \text{false}$ , and  $e3 \Rightarrow v$ , then  
     $\text{"if } e1 \text{ then } e2 \text{ else } e3" \Rightarrow v$

# Quiz 1

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To what value does this expression evaluate?

```
if 10 < 20 then 2 else 1
```

A. 0

B. 1

C. 2

D. none of the above

# Quiz 1

---

To what value does this expression evaluate?

```
if 10 < 20 then 2 else 1
```

A. 0

B. 1

**C. 2**

D. none of the above

## Quiz 2

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To what value does this expression evaluate?

```
if 22 >10 then 2021 else "home"
```

A. 0

B. 1

C. 2

D. none of the above

## Quiz 2

---

To what value does this expression evaluate?

```
if 22 > 10 then 2021 else "home"
```

A. 0

B. 1

C. 2

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

# Function Definitions

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- 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

# Type Inference

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- 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?

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



# Calling Functions, *aka* Function Application

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- Syntax  $f\ e1\ \dots\ en$   $fact\ (2+1)$ 
  - Parentheses not required around argument(s)
  - No commas; use spaces instead
- Evaluation
  - Find the definition of  $f$ 
    - i.e.,  $let\ rec\ f\ x1\ \dots\ xn = e$
  - Evaluate arguments  $e1\ \dots\ en$  to values  $v1\ \dots\ vn$
  - **Substitute** arguments  $v1, \dots, vn$  for params  $x1, \dots, xn$  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

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- 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

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- 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: Example

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

(n=0): **bool** assuming n:**int**

(n \* fact (n-1)) : **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