

# O'Cam1 Intro

COS 326

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# Thinking Functionally

In **Java** or **C**, you get (most) work done by *changing* something

```
temp = pair.x;  
pair.x = pair.y;  
pair.y = temp;
```

← commands *modify* or *change* an existing data structure (like pair)

In **OCaml**, you get (most) work done by *producing* something

```
let  
  (x,y) = pair  
in  
  (y,x)
```

← you *analyze* existing data (like pair) and you *produce* new data (y,x)

# Thinking Functionally

pure, functional code:

```
let  
  (x,y) = pair  
in  
  (y,x)
```

- *outputs are everything!*
- *output is function of input*
- *persistent*
- *repeatable*
- *parallelism apparent*
- *easier to test*
- *easier to compose*

imperative code:

```
temp = pair.x;  
pair.x = pair.y;  
pair.y = temp;
```

- *outputs are irrelevant!*
- *output is not function of input*
- *volatile*
- *unrepeatable*
- *parallelism hidden*
- *harder to test*
- *harder to compose*

# What else makes OCaml different?

Small, *orthogonal* core based on the *lambda calculus*.

- Control is based on (recursive) functions.
- Instead of for-loops, while-loops, do-loops, iterators, etc.
  - can be defined as library functions.
- Makes it easy to define semantics



Supports *first-class, lexically-scoped, higher-order* procedures

- a.k.a. first-class functions or closures or lambdas.
- **first-class**: functions are data values like any other data value
  - like numbers, they can be stored, defined anonymously, ...
- **lexically-scoped**: meaning of variables determined statically.
- **higher-order**: functions as arguments and results
  - programs passed to programs; generated from programs

These aspects are in common with other functional languages such as Scheme, Haskell, SML, Clojure, CoffeeScript.

# What else makes OCaml different?

## Statically typed:

- compiler catches many silly errors before you can run the code.
- e.g., calling a function with the wrong number of arguments
- Java is also strongly, statically typed.
- Scheme, Bash, Python, Javascript, Basic, etc. are all strongly, *dynamically typed* – type errors are discovered while the code is running.

## Strongly typed: compiler enforces type abstraction.

- cannot cast an integer to a record, function, string, etc.
  - so we can utilize *types as capabilities*.
  - crucial for local reasoning
- C/C++ are *weakly-typed* languages. The compiler will happily let you do something smart (*more often stupid*).

## Type inference: compiler fills in types for you



Integer Functor Ord Char  
Either Monad  
Bool Enum  
Int [...] Eq  
-> Read  
Num (,\_)  
Bounded (,\_)  
Integral () IO Show  
Maybe String Ratio Float

I prefer the strong, static type.

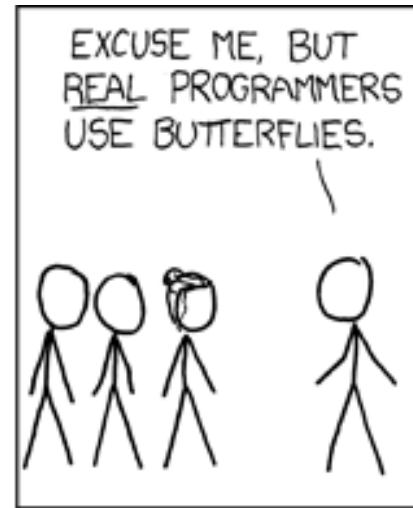
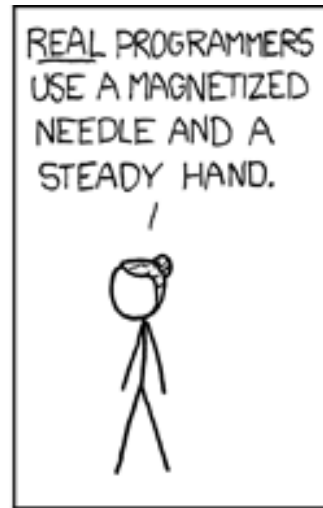
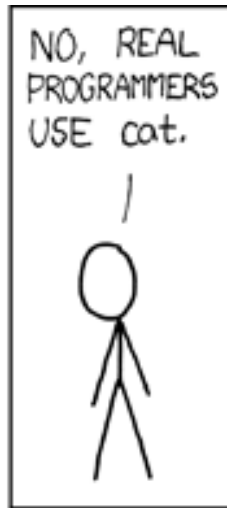
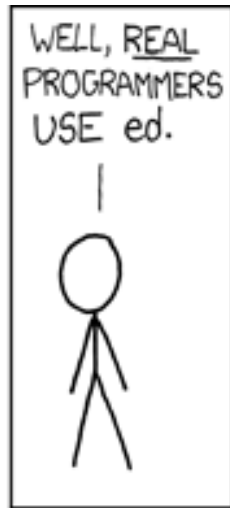
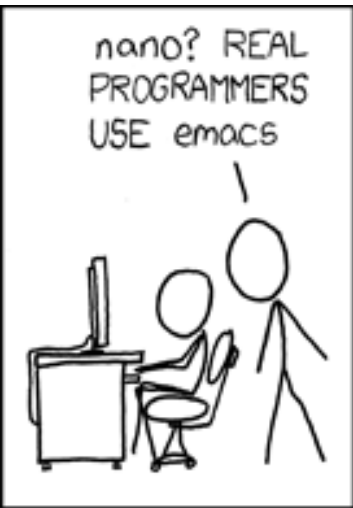
# Installing, running Ocaml

- Ocaml comes with an interactive, top-level loop.
  - useful for testing and debugging code.
  - “ocaml” at the prompt.
- It also comes with compilers
  - “ocamlc” – fast bytecode compiler
  - “ocamlopt” – optimizing, native code compiler
  - command line interface similar to GCC
- And many other tools
  - e.g., debugger, dependency generator, profiler, etc.
- See the course web pages for instructions on installing and using O’Caml

# Editing Ocaml Programs

- Many options: pick your own poison
  - Emacs
    - what I'll be using in class.
    - good but not great support for Ocaml.
    - on the other hand, it's still the best code editor I've encountered.
    - (extensions written in elisp – a functional language!)
  - Ocaml IDE
    - integrated development environment written in Ocaml.
    - haven't used it much, so can't comment.
  - Eclipse
    - I've put up a link to an Ocaml plugin
    - I haven't tried it but others recommend it

# XKCD on Editors

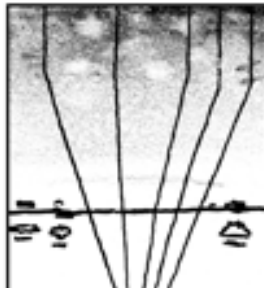


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**AN INTRODUCTORY EXAMPLE  
(OR TWO)**

# Ocaml Compiler and Interpreter

- Demo:
  - emacs
  - ml files
  - writing simple programs: hello.ml, sum.ml
  - simple debugging and unit tests
  - ocamlc compiler
  - ocaml top-level loop
    - #use
    - #load
    - #quit

# A First O'Caml Program

hello.ml:

```
print_string "hello cos326!!\n";;
```

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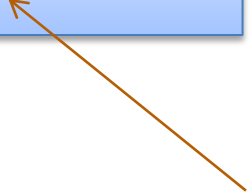
a function



it's string argument  
enclosed in "..."



top-level  
expressions  
terminated by ;;



# A First O'Caml Program

hello.ml:

```
print_string "hello cos326!!\n";;
```

compiling and running hello.ml:

```
$ ocamlc hello.ml -o hello
$ ./hello
hello cos326!!
$
```

# A First O'Caml Program

hello.ml:

```
print_string "hello cos326!!\n";;
```

interpreting and playing with hello.ml:

```
$ ocaml
      Objective Caml Version 3.12.0
#
```

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# 3 + 1;;
- : int = 4
#
```

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- : int = 4
# #use "hello.ml";;
hello cos326!!
- : unit = ()
#
```



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- : unit = ()
# #quit;;
$
```

# A Second O'Caml Program

sumTo8.ml:

```
(* sum the numbers from 0 to n
   precondition: n must be a natural number
*)
let rec sumTo (n:int) : int =
  match n with
  | 0 -> 0
  | n -> n + sumTo (n-1)
;;

print_int (sumTo 8);;
print_newline();;
```

a comment  
(\* ... \*)



# A Second O'Caml Program

the name of the function being defined

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```

top-level  
declaration  
ends with  
“;;”  
”

the keyword “let” begins a definition

the keyword “rec” indicates the definition is recursive

# A Second O'CamI Program

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;;

print_int (sumTo 8);;
print_newline();;
```

result type int

argument  
named n  
with type int

# A Second O'Caml Program

deconstruct the value `n`  
using pattern matching

`sumTo8.ml :`

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print_int (sumTo 8);;
print_newline();;
```

data to be  
deconstructed  
appears  
between  
key words  
"match" and  
"with"

# A Second O'CamI Program

vertical bar "|" separates the alternative patterns

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```

The diagram consists of three orange arrows. One arrow starts from the text 'vertical bar "|" separates the alternative patterns' and points to the vertical bar in the match expression 'match n with | 0 -> 0 | n -> n + sumTo (n-1)'. A second arrow starts from the same text and points to the '0' in the first pattern '0 -> 0'. A third arrow starts from the same text and points to the 'n' in the second pattern 'n -> n + sumTo (n-1)'. The code is displayed in a light blue box.

deconstructed data matches one of 2 cases:

(i) the data matches the pattern 0, or (ii) the data matches the variable pattern n

# A Second O'Caml Program

Each branch of the match statement constructs a result

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;;

print_int (sumTo 8);;
print_newline();;
```

construct  
the result 0

construct  
a result  
using a  
recursive  
call to sumTo

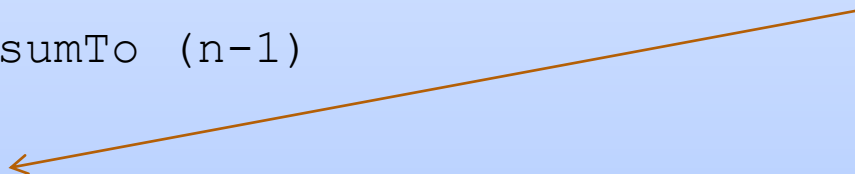
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;;

print_int (sumTo 8);;
print_newline();;
```

print the  
result of  
calling  
sumTo on 8



print a  
new line





# **O'CAML BASICS: EXPRESSIONS, VALUES, SIMPLE TYPES**

# Expressions, Values, Types

- **Expressions** are computations
  - $2 + 3$  is a computation
- **Values** are the results of computations
  - 5 is a value
- **Types** describe collections of values and the computations that generate those values
  - int is a type
  - values of type int include
    - 0, 1, 2, 3, ..., max\_int
    - -1, -2, ..., min\_int

# More simple types, values, operations

<u>Type:</u>	<u>Values:</u>	<u>Expressions:</u>
int	-2, 0, 42	42 * (13 + 1)
float	3.14, -1., 2e12	(3.14 +. 12.0) *. 10e6
char	'a', 'b', '&'	int_of_char 'a'
string	"moo", "cow"	"moo" ^ "cow"
bool	true, false	if true then 3 else 4
unit	()	print_int 3

For more primitive types and functions over them,  
see the Ocaml Reference Manual here:

<http://caml.inria.fr/pub/docs/manual-ocaml/libref/Pervasives.html>

# Language Definition

- There are a number of ways to define a programming language
- In this class, we will briefly investigate:
  - Syntax
  - Evaluation
  - Type checking
- Standard ML, a very close relative of O'Caml, has a full definition of each of these parts and a number of proofs of correctness
  - For more on this theme, see COS 441
- The O'Caml Manual fleshes out the syntax and some of the evaluation constraints and type checking rules

# **O'CAML BASICS: CORE EXPRESSION SYNTAX**

# Core Expression Syntax

The simplest OCaml expressions  $e$  are:

- values *numbers, strings, bools, ...*
- id *variables (x, foo, ...)*
- $e_1$  op  $e_2$  *operators (x+3, ...)*
- id  $e_1$   $e_2$  ...  $e_n$  *function call (foo 3 42)*
- **let** id =  $e_1$  **in**  $e_2$  *local variable decl.*
- **if**  $e_1$  **then**  $e_2$  **else**  $e_3$  *a conditional*
- (e) *a parenthesized expression*
- (e : t) *an expression with its type*

# A note on parentheses

In most languages, arguments are parenthesized & separated by commas:

```
f(x, y, z)      sum(3, 4, 5)
```

In Ocaml, we don't write the parentheses or the commas:

```
f x y z      sum 3 4 5
```

But we do have to worry about *grouping*. For example,

```
f x y z  
f x (y z)
```

The first one passes three arguments to f (x, y, and z)

The second passes two arguments to f (x, and the result of applying the function y to z.)

# **O'CAML BASICS: TYPE CHECKING**



# Type Checking

- Every value has a type and so does every expression
- This is a concept that is familiar from Java but it becomes more important when programming in a functional language
- The type of an expression is determined by the type of its subexpressions
- We write  $(e : t)$  to say that expression  $e$  has type  $t$ . eg:

$2 : \text{int}$

$\text{"hello"} : \text{string}$

$2 + 2 : \text{int}$

$\text{"I say " ^ "hello"} : \text{string}$

# Type Checking Rules

- There are a set of **simple rules** that govern type checking
  - programs that do not follow the rules will not type check and O’Caml will refuse to compile them for you (the nerve!)
  - at first you may find this to be a pain ...
- But types are a great thing:
  - they help us think about how to construct our programs
  - they helps us find stupid programming errors
  - they help us track down compatibility errors quickly when we edit and maintain our code
  - they allow us to enforce powerful invariants about our data structures

# Type Checking Rules

- Example rules:

(1) `0 : int` (and similarly for any other integer constant `n`)

(2) `"abc" : string` (and similarly for any other string constant `"..."`)

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then  $e1 \wedge e2 : \text{string}$
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$2 : \text{int}$  and  $3 : \text{int}$ . (By rule 1)

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Therefore,  $(2 + 3) * 5 : \text{int}$  (By rule 4 and our previous work)

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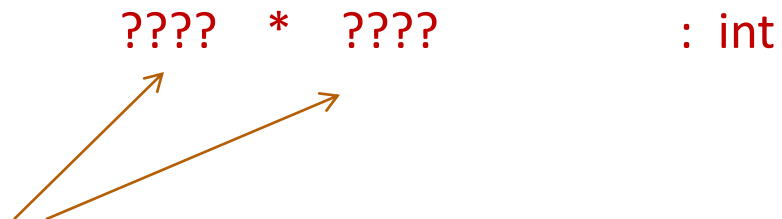
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rule (4) for typing expressions  
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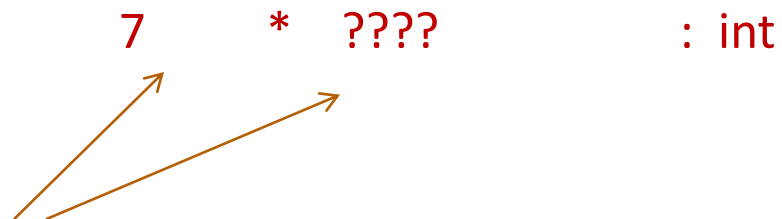
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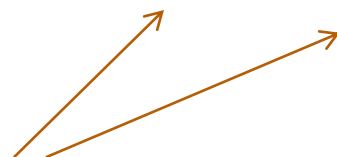
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`7 * (add_one 17) : int`  


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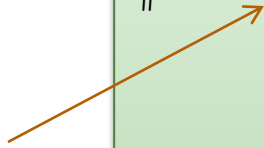
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return  
and you  
find out  
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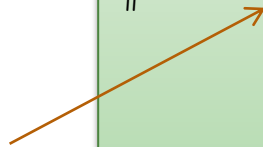


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# "hello " ^ "world";;
- : string = "hello world"
# #quit;;
$
```

# Type Checking Rules

- Example rules:

(1) `0 : int` (and similarly for any other integer constant `n`)

(2) `"abc" : string` (and similarly for any other string constant `"..."`)

(3) if `e1 : int` and `e2 : int`  
then `e1 + e2 : int`

(4) if `e1 : int` and `e2 : int`  
then `e1 * e2 : int`

(5) if `e1 : string` and `e2 : string`  
then `e1 ^ e2 : string`

(6) if `e : int`  
then `string_of_int e : string`

- Violating the rules:

`"hello" : string`

(By rule 2)

`1 : int`

(By rule 1)

`1 + "hello" : ??`

(NO TYPE! Rule 3 does not apply!)

# Type Checking Rules

- Violating the rules:

```
# "hello" + 1;;
```

```
Error: This expression has type string but an  
expression was expected of type int
```

- The type error message tells you the type that was **expected** and the type that it **inferred** for your subexpression
- By the way, this was one of the nonsensical expressions that did not evaluate to a value
- I consider it a good thing that this expression does not type check

# Type Checking Rules

- Violating the rules:

```
# "hello" + 1;;
```

```
Error: This expression has type string but an  
expression was expected of type int
```

- A possible fix:

```
# "hello" ^ (string_of_int 1);;  
- : string = "hello1"
```

- One of the keys to becoming a good ML programmer is to understand type error messages.

# Type Checking Rules

- More rules:

(7) `true : bool`

(8) `false : bool`

(9) `if e1 : bool`  
and `e2 : t` and `e3 : t` (for some type `t`)  
then `if e1 then e2 else e3 : t`

- Using the rules:

`if ???? then ???? else ???? : int`

# Type Checking Rules

- More rules:

(7) `true : bool`

(8) `false : bool`

(9) `if e1 : bool`  
and `e2 : t` and `e3 : t` (for some type `t`)  
then `if e1 then e2 else e3 : t`

- Using the rules:

`if true then ???? else ???? : int`

# Type Checking Rules

- More rules:

(7) `true : bool`

(8) `false : bool`

(9) if `e1 : bool`  
and `e2 : t` and `e3 : t` (for some type `t`)  
then `if e1 then e2 else e3 : t`

- Using the rules:

`if true then 7 else ???? : int`

# Type Checking Rules

- More rules:

(7) `true : bool`

(8) `false : bool`

(9) `if e1 : bool`  
and `e2 : t` and `e3 : t` (for some type `t`)  
then `if e1 then e2 else e3 : t`

- Using the rules:

`if true then 7 else 8 : int`



# Type Checking Rules

- More rules:

(7) `true : bool`

(8) `false : bool`

(9) if `e1 : bool`  
and `e2 : t` and `e3 : t` (for some type `t`)  
then `if e1 then e2 else e3 : t`

- Violating the rules

`if false then "1" else 2 : ????`



types don't agree -- one is a string and one is an int

# Type Checking Rules

- Violating the rules:

```
# if true then "1" else 2;;
```

```
Error: This expression has type int but an  
expression was expected of type string
```

```
#
```

# Type Checking Rules

- What about this expression:

```
# 3 / 0 ;;  
Exception: Division_by_zero.
```

- Why doesn't the ML type checker do us the favor of telling us the expression will raise an exception?

# Type Checking Rules

- What about this expression:

```
# 3 / 0 ;;  
Exception: Division_by_zero.
```

- Why doesn't the ML type checker do us the favor of telling us the expression will raise an exception?
  - In general, detecting a divide-by-zero error requires we know that the divisor evaluates to 0.
  - In general, deciding whether the divisor evaluates to 0 requires solving the halting problem:

```
# 3 / (if turing_machine_halts m then 0 else 1) ;;
```

- There are type systems that will rule out divide-by-zero errors, but they require programmers supply proofs to the type checker

**OVERALL SUMMARY:  
A SHORT INTRODUCTION TO  
FUNCTIONAL PROGRAMMING**

# OCaml

OCaml is a *call-by-value, strong, statically typed, functional* programming language

- **functional**: OCaml functions *analyze* their inputs and *generate new* outputs
  - as opposed to C or Java functions which typically *modify/change* state
  - in OCaml, *outputs* of a function are *typically* completely determined by their *inputs*
- **call-by-value**: OCaml expressions compute *values* eagerly
  - as opposed to Haskell or Unix pipes that compute values on demand, lazily
- I like the **strong, static type**: all OCaml expressions are assigned a *type* before execution of the expression
  - the *type* of an expression correctly *predicts* the kind of *value* the expression will generate when it is executed
  - types help us *understand* and *write* our programs
  - *type inference* makes our programs compact
  - the type system is *strong* (ie: sound): there's no funny business like in C where you think you have a pointer, but you actually have some non-pointer

**END**