

Lectures 3-4

Functional languages

Iztok Sarnik, FAMNIT

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Literature

John Mitchell, Concepts in Programming Languages, Cambridge Univ Press, 2003 (Chapter 7)

Michael L. Scott, Programming Language Pragmatics (3rd ed.), Elsevier, 2009 (Chapters 10)

Outline

- History
- Values
- `let` statement, functions
- Blocks, name spaces
- Recursion
- Polymorphism
- Pattern-matching
- Types in functional languages
- Higher-order functions
- Trees

Models of computation

- In 1930s many mathematicans were dealing with the formal notion of **algorithm**
 - Turing, Church, Kleene, Post, ...
 - Formalizations of »effective procedure«
- Mathematical models
 - Lambda calculus, General recursive functions. Combinatory logic. Abstract rewriting systems
- State machine models
 - Finite state machines. Pushdown automata. Random access machines. Turing machines
- Concurrent models
 - Cellular automaton. Kahn process networks. Petri nets. Synchronous Data Flow. Interaction nets. Actor model

Models of computation

- **Church's thesis** says that all such formalizations are equally powerful
- Foundations of imperative and functional languages
 - Turing machine
 - Lambda calculus

Functional languages

- In recent years functional languages have become increasingly more popular
 - Scientific as well as bussiness applications
- Functional languages have a great deal in common with imperative and object-oriented relatives
 - Names, scoping, expresssons, types, recursion, ...
- We will learn **common concepts** of PL in different paradigms
 - Functions, parameter passing, blocks, ...
- **Specific concepts** of particular computation models will also be presented
 - Iteration, recursion, OO paradigm, ...

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Values

- Atomic types
 - integer, real, boolean, string
 - Simple value is an instance of atomic type
- Functional languages use values
- Imperative languages use variables
- Ocaml includes atomic types:
 - Integer, float, char, string
 - Operations are bound to particular types
 - Derivation of expression type is easier

```
# 7;;  
- : int = 7  
  
# 5.3;;  
- : float = 5.3  
  
# 'c';;  
- : char = 'c'  
  
# "spring";;  
- : string = "spring"
```


Lists

- Values of some type can be stored into lists
 - List is either empty [], or, it includes values of fixed type
- List has a head and a tail:
 - 1 is head and [2; 3] a tail
 - $[1; 2; 3] \equiv 1::[2; 3] \equiv 1::2::3::[]$
 - Operator `::` corresponds to Lisp **cons operator**
- Two lists can be concatenated using operator **append @**
 - $[1]@[2; 3] \equiv [1; 2; 3]$
- Implementation details & other aspects
 - Lectures on (1) Imperative lang. and (2) Types

```
# [ 1 ; 2 ; 3 ] ;;  
- : int list = [1; 2; 3]
```

Products

- Products are defined as in mathematics
 - Interpretation of a product type is the Cartesian product of the interpretations of types that comprise product
 - Instances of products are pairs, triples, n-tuples

```
# ( 65 , 'B' , "ascii" ) ;;  
- : int * char * string = 65, 'B', "ascii"
```

```
# ( 12 , "October" ) ;;  
- : int * string = 12, "October"
```

```
# fst;;  
- : 'a * 'b -> 'a = <fun>  
# fst ( "October", 12 ) ;;  
- : string = "October"
```

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Bindings

- A binding is an association between two things, such as a name and the thing it names
- **let statement** binds value with its name
 - $\text{let } x = M \text{ in } N \equiv (\lambda x.N)M$
- Value can be defined globally or locally
 - **Global definition** is accessible in global context
 - **Local definition** is seen solely in local context

```
let name1 = expr1  
...  
and namen = exprn  
in expr
```

```
let name1 = expr1  
...  
and namen = exprn
```

Statement `let`: Examples

```
# let a = 3.0 and b = 4.0;;  
val a : float = 3.  
val b : float = 4.  
# a;;  
- : float = 3.
```

```
# let x = 3 in x * x ;;  
- : int = 9  
# (let x = 3 in x * x) + 1 ;;  
- : int = 10
```

```
# let a = 3.0 and b = 4.0 in sqrt (a*.a +. b*.b);;  
- : float = 5.  
# a;;  
Error: Unbound value a
```

```
# let c = (let a = 3.0 and b = 4.0 in sqrt (a*.a +. b*.b));;  
val c : float = 5.
```

Functions

- Function is lambda abstraction $\lambda x.M$
 - x is a parameter and M is the body of a function
- Function expression is composed of a parameter x and a function body M
 - Function parameter is formal
- Example:
 - $\lambda x.x*x$
 - $(\lambda x.x*x) 5$

function x -> M

function x -> x*x ;;
- : int -> int = <fun>
(function x -> x * x) 5 ;;
- : int = 25

Functions

- Function body can be another function

```
# function x -> (function y -> 3*x + y) ;;  
- : int -> int -> int = <fun>
```

- The result of a function can again be a function

```
# (function x -> function y -> 3*x + y) 5 ;;  
- : int -> int = <fun>
```

```
# (function x -> function y -> 3*x + y) 4 5 ;;  
- : int = 17
```

Function

- The **arity** of function is number of its parameters
 - Functions have single parameters in OCaml
 - This is called **Curry form** of function
- Single parameter can also be a tuple or a record
 - Curry form of the same function

```
f (g, x) = g(x)
fcurry = λg.λx.g x
```

```
# function (x,y) -> 3*x + y ;;
- : int * int -> int = <fun>
```

```
# function x -> function y -> 3*x + y;;
- : int -> int -> int = <fun>
# (function x -> function y -> 3*x + y) 4 5;;
- : int = 17
```


Function values

- Function is treated as a value
 - Using `let` statement to define binding between `function` and `name`
- Examples:

```
# let succ = function x -> x + 1 ;;  
val succ : int -> int = <fun>  
# succ 420 ;;  
- : int = 421  
# let g = function x -> function y -> 2*x + 3*y ;;  
val g : int -> int -> int = <fun>  
# g 1 2;;  
- : int = 8
```

Function definition

- Alternative syntax for function definition in Ocaml

```
let name p1 p2 ... = <function-body>  
let name = function p1 -> ... -> function pn -> <function-body>
```

- Example:

- $h1(y) = 2 + 3*y$
- $h2(x) = 2*x + 6$

```
# let s x = x + 1;;  
val s : int -> int = <fun>  
# let g x y = 2*x + 3*y ;;  
val g : int -> int -> int = <fun>  
# let h1 = g 1 ;;  
val h1 : int -> int = <fun>  
# let h2 = function x -> g x 2 ;;  
val h2 : int -> int = <fun>  
# h2 2 ;;  
- : int = 10
```

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Blocks

- Most modern programming languages provide some kind of blocks
 - Block is **program region** that includes begin and end
 - Blocks have **local variables**
 - **Global variable** of some block is defined in some encompassing block
- Block are used in all modern PLs
 - C, C++, Java, Scala, Rust, C#, ML, ...
- Local def. of value can **hide** def. of global value

```
{ int x = ... ;  
  { int y = ... ;  
    x = y+2;  
    { int x = ... ;  
      ...  
    };  
  };  
};
```

```
# let a = 1.0;;  
- : float = 1  
# let a = 3.0 and b = 4.0 in sqrt (a*.a +. b*.b) ;;  
- : float = 5
```

Scope and lifetime

- **Scope** of value (or variable) is program area where it is defined
 - Value defined in some global block is defined in all subsuming blocks
- **Lifetime** of value (or variable) is duration of definition of value
- In many cases scope implies lifetime
 - Variables defined in a scope are disposed together with the environment of the scope
 - Global declarations in C, C++ can appear locally

Static and dynamic scope

- Let some value be defined outside current block
 - Then variable is **global** relatively to local block
- **Static scope**
 - Variables are first searched in local block and then in structurally enclosing blocks
- **Dynamic scope**
 - Variables are searched by following function calls i.e. blocks where function was invoked
- Static: C, Scheme, Scala, Rust, ML, Pascal
Dynamic: older Lisp, macros in C

```
# let x=1;;  
val x : int = 1  
# let g z = x+z;;  
val g : int -> int = <fun>  
# let f y = let x = y+1 in g (y*x);;  
val f : int -> int = <fun>  
# f(3);;  
- : int = 13 (or 16)?
```

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Recursion

- Definition of a symbol includes reference to itself
- Recursion was first introduced in Lisp
 - McCarthy advocated to use recursion in Algol
- Lambda abstractions do not have name
 - McCarthy suggestion for naming functions in Lisp

```
(label f (lambda (x) (cond ((eq x 0) 0) (true (+ x (f (- x 1)))))))
```

- Later they simply declared function using `define`

```
(define f (lambda (x) (cond ((eq x 0) 0) (true (+ x (f (- x 1)))))))
```


Linear recursion

- Recursion that evolves in one direction
 - Recursive call is at the end of function body
- Example: factorial

```
# let rec factorial n -> if n=1 then 1 else n * factorial (n-1);;  
val factorial : int -> int = <fun>
```

- Tail recursion
 - Can be converted into iteration

```
fact 6 = 6 * fact 5  
       = 6 * ( 5 * fact 4)  
       = 6 * ( 5 * (4 * fact 3))  
       = 6 * ( 5 * (4 * ( 3 * fact 2)))  
       = 6 * ( 5 * (4 * ( 3 * ( 2 * fact 1))))  
       = 6 * ( 5 * (4 * ( 3 * ( 2 * 1))))  
       = 720
```

Examples

- Function `sigma` computes sum from 1 to `n`.

- Linear recursion

```
# let rec sigma x = if x = 0 then 0 else x + sigma (x-1) ;;  
val sigma : int -> int = <fun>  
# sigma 10 ;;  
- : int = 55
```

- Function `even` and `odd` return boolean value

- Recursion in two cycles

```
# let rec even n = (n<>1) && ((n=0) or (odd (n-1)))  
    and odd n = (n<>0) && ((n=1) or (even (n-1))) ;;  
val even : int -> bool = <fun>  
val odd : int -> bool = <fun>  
# even 4 ;;  
- : bool = true  
# odd 5 ;;  
- : bool = true
```

Ackermann function

- Ackermann f. is not primitive recursive but decidable (total fun.)
 - Linear recursion with termination condition
 - Growing faster than any primitive recursive f.
 - Decidable functions exist "above" primitive recursive functions.
- Example
 - $A(1,1)$ and $A(2,1)$

$$A(0, y) = y + 1$$

$$A(x + 1, 0) = A(x, 1)$$

$$A(x + 1, y + 1) = A(x, A(x + 1, y))$$

$$A(1, 1) = A(0, A(1, 0))$$

$$= A(0, A(0, 1))$$

$$= A(0, 2)$$

$$= 3$$

$$A(2, 1) = A(1, A(2, 0))$$

$$= A(1, A(1, 1))$$

$$= A(1, 3)$$

$$= A(0, A(1, 2))$$

$$= A(0, A(0, A(1, 1)))$$

$$= A(0, A(0, 3))$$

$$= A(0, 4)$$

$$= 5$$

Ackermann function

- **Implementation in OCaml**
 - Recursive functions can be transl. almost directly to ML
- Function is growing very fast
 - Num. of atoms in the universe
 - Try: `ack 4 2;;`
 - Notebook with 16GB RAM
 - Combinatorial explosion
 - $\text{ack } 2 \ n = 2 * n + 3$
 - $\text{ack } 3 \ n = 2^{(n + 3)} - 3$
 - $\text{ack } 4 \ 2 = 2^{65536} - 3$
 - $\text{ack } 4 \ 3 = 2^{2^{65536}} - 3$

```
# let rec ack x y =  
  if (x == 0) then y+1  
  else if (y == 0) then ack (x-1) 1  
  else ack (x-1) (ack x (y-1));;  
val ack : int -> int -> int = <fun>  
# ack 3 5;;  
- : int = 253
```

```
# ack 1 2;;  
- : int = 4  
# ack 2 3;;  
- : int = 9  
# ack 3 14;;  
- : int = 131069  
# ack 3 15;;  
Stack overflow during evaluation (looping recursion?).  
# ack 4 1 ;;  
- : int = 65533  
# ack 4 2;;  
Stack overflow during evaluation (looping recursion?).  
#...
```

Recursive functions on lists

- A list is a linear data structure
 - Grows in one direction $h::t$ (head and tail)
 - A tail again has a head and a tail, etc.
- Linear recursion
 - Recursion guided by the structure
 - Pattern:
 - Take the head and use it to compute the task.
 - Recur the action on the tail.
 - On return from the recursive call, take the result and build something that is again returned as the result.
 - Stopping condition is the end of a list.
 - Parameters can be used to assist in the construction of the result
- Can be converted into iteration, in some cases.

Recursive functions on lists

```
# let null l = (l = []) ;;  
val null : 'a list -> bool = <fun>
```

```
# let rec size l =  
  if null l then 0  
  else 1 + (size (List.tl l)) ;;  
val size : 'a list -> int = <fun>
```

```
# let rec reverse l =  
  if null l then []  
  else (reverse (List.tl l)) @ [(List.hd l)];;  
val reverse : 'a list -> 'a list = <fun>
```

Recursive functions on lists

```
# let rec member x l =  
  if null l then false  
  else if x = List.hd(l) then true  
  else member x (List.tl l);;  
val member : 'a -> 'a list -> bool = <fun>  
# member 3 [2;3;1];;  
- : bool = true  
  
# let rec inter(xs, ys) =  
  if null xs then []  
  else let x = List.hd xs  
        in if (member x ys) then x :: inter(List.tl xs, ys)  
           else inter(List.tl xs, ys);;  
val inter : 'a list * 'a list -> 'a list = <fun>  
# inter ([1;2;3],[4;2]);;  
- : int list = [2]
```

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Polymorphism

- Polymorphism (Greek, »many shapes«)
- **Parametric polymorphism**
 - Function can have "many shapes"
 - Types of parameters are variables
- **Type variables**
 - Variable that stands for any type
 - 'a, 'b, 'c, ...
- A form of **genericity**

```
# let make_pair a b = (a,b) ;;  
val make_pair : 'a -> 'b -> 'a * 'b = <fun>  
# let p = make_pair "paper" 451 ;;  
val p : string * int = "paper", 451  
# let a = make_pair 'B' 65 ;;  
val a : char * int = 'B', 65  
# fst p ;;  
- : string = "paper"  
# fst a ;;  
- : char = 'B'
```

Examples: Polymorphic functions

```
# let app = function f -> function x -> f x ;;  
val app : ('a -> 'b) -> 'a -> 'b = <fun>
```

- Function application

- Any function f of type $'a \rightarrow 'b$ can be passed as parameter

- Function composition

- Any functions f and g of type $'a \rightarrow 'b$ and $'c \rightarrow 'a$ can be passed as parameters

```
# app odd 2;;  
- : bool = false  
# let id x = x ;;  
val id : 'a -> 'a = <fun>  
# app id 1 ;;  
- : int = 1
```

```
# let compose f g x = f (g x) ;;  
val compose : ('a -> 'b) -> ('c -> 'a) -> 'c -> 'b = <fun>  
# let add1 x = x+1 and mul5 x = x*5 in compose mul5 add1 9 ;;  
- : int = 50
```

Examples:

Polymorphic functions on lists

```
# let rec member x l =  
if null l then false  
else if x = List.hd(l) then true  
else member x (List.tl l);;  
val member : 'a -> 'a list -> bool = <fun>  
# member 3 [2;3;1];;  
- : bool = true  
# member 'a ['c';'d';'e';'a'];;  
- : bool = true  
# member 1 ['c';'d';'e';'a'];;
```

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

```
# let rec append l1 l2 =  
if null l1 then l2  
else (List.hd l1)::append (List.tl l1) l2 ;;  
val append : 'a list -> 'a list -> 'a list = <fun>  
# append [1;2] [3;4];;  
- : int list = [1; 2; 3; 4]  
# append ["2";"ab"] ["3";"c";"d"];;  
- : string list = ["2"; "ab"; "3"; "c"; "d"]
```

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Pattern matching

- A special feature of languages of ML family
 - Haskell, Erlang, SML, ...
 - Close to **Prolog unification**
 - Very complex case statement
- **Declarative** language construct !
 - Logic based languages?
 - Not functional and not imperative?
- Allows simple access to the components of complex data structures
- Functions can be defined by cases
 - Pattern matching over an argument

Pattern matching

- The patterns for the data structures characteristic for the functional languages are presented
 - Lists, products and unions
- The patterns used for the data structures of the imperative languages are presented later
 - ... in the frame of the imperative prog. Languages
 - Records and arrays.

Pattern matching

- **Pattern definition**
 - Structure comprised of tuples, records, unions and lists including constants (of predefined types) and variables
 - Variables are "hooks" that catch the values
 - The symbol `_` is called the **wildcard pattern**: matches to any data (as in Prolog)
- The evaluation is parametrised by data
 - When pattern in data is recognised, the corresponding expression is evaluated.

Statement match

```
match <expression> with  
| <pattern_1> -> <expression_1>  
| <pattern_2> -> <expression_2>  
....  
| <pattern_k> -> <expression_k>
```

- Patterns in match must be of the same type
- Pattern must be **linear** - a variable can appear just once in a pattern
- Patterns in match are tested **sequentially!**
- The expression with the first match is evaluated
- List of patterns in match must be **exhaustive** - every value must be matched with a pattern in the list
- First pipe (character | on the first line) is optional

Examples

- Simple match:

```
# let imply v = match v with
| (false,false) -> true
| (false, true) -> true
| (true, false) -> false
| (true, true) -> true;;
val imply : bool * bool -> bool = <fun>
```

- With variable:

```
let imply2 a b = match (a,b) with
| (true, x) -> x
| (false,x) -> true;;
Val imply2 : bool -> bool -> bool = <fun>
```

- With wildchard pattern:

```
let imply3 a b = match (a,b) with
| (true,false) -> false
| _ -> true;;
let imply3 : bool -> bool -> bool = <fun>
```

Linearity and completeness

- Every pattern must be **linear**:

```
let equal a b = match (a,b) with
```

```
| (x,x) -> true
```

```
| _ -> false;;
```

Error: Variable x is bound several times in this matching

```
# equal 1 2;;
```

Error: Unbound value equal

- Every pattern must be **exhaustive**:

```
# let iszero x = match x with 0 -> true;;
```

Warning 8: this pattern-matching is not exhaustive.

Here is an example of a value that is not matched:

```
1
```

```
val iszero : int -> bool = <fun>
```

```
# iszero 0;;
```

```
- : bool = true
```

```
# iszero 10;;
```

Exception: "Match_failure //toplevel//:3:-34".

Combining patterns

Pattern matching is
sequential:

1. 'A' is "Consonant"
2. 'A' matched by
"Vowel"

```
# let char_discriminate c = match c with
  | 'a' | 'e' | 'i' | 'o' | 'u' | 'y'
  | 'A' | 'E' | 'I' | 'O' | 'U' | 'Y' -> "Vowel"
  | 'a'..'z' | 'A'..'Z' -> "Consonant"
  | '0'..'9' -> "Digit"
  | _ -> "Other";;

val char_discriminate : char -> string = <fun>
# val char_discriminate 'A';;
- : string = "Vowel"
# val char_discriminate 'z';;
- : string = "Consonant"
# val char_discriminate '$';;
- : string = "Other"
```

Named patterns

- During pattern matching, it is sometimes useful **to name part or all of the pattern**. This is useful when one needs to take apart a value while still maintaining its integrity.

```
# let less_rat pr = match pr with
| (_,0),p2) -> p2
| (p1,(_,0)) -> p1
| (((n1,d1) as r1), ((n2,d2) as r2)) ->
    if (n1*d2) < (n2*d1) then r1 else r2;;
val min_rat : (int * int) * (int * int) -> int * int = <fun>
```

- As a result, the value matched by the named pattern can be returned.

Pattern guards

- Guard is a conditional expression applied immediately after the pattern is matched.

- Syntax:

```
match <expression> with
....
| <pattern_i> when <condition> -> <expression_i>
....
```

- Example:

```
# let eq_rat cr = match cr with
  ((_,0),(_,0)) -> true
  | ((_,0),_) -> false
  | (_,(_,0)) -> false
  | ((n1,1), (n2,1)) when n1 = n2 -> true
  | ((n1,d1), (n2,d2)) when ((n1 * d2) = (n2 * d1)) -> true
  | _ -> false;;
val eq_rat : (int * int) * (int * int) -> bool = <fun>
```

Matching on arguments

- Pattern matching is used in an essential way for defining (unary) **functions by cases**.
- Ordinary function with one argument:
 - function $\langle x \rangle \rightarrow \langle \text{expression} \rangle$
 - Using a single pattern

```
# let f (x,y) = 2*x + 3*y + 4 ;;  
val f : int * int -> int = <fun>
```

```
# let f = function (x,y) -> 2*x + 3*y;;  
val f : int * int -> int = <fun>
```

```
function  
| <pattern_1> -> <expression_1>  
....  
| <pattern_k> -> <expression_k>
```

```
# let rec sigma = function  
0 -> 0  
| x -> x + sigma (x-1) ;;  
val sigma : int -> int = <fun>  
# sigma 10 ;;  
- : int = 55
```

- We will see more examples of functions defined by patterns shortly! Let's consider first pattern matching on lists.

Examples: Matching on arguments

- Size of a list

```
# let rec length = function
  | [] -> 0
  | _::tl -> 1 + length tl;;
val length : 'a list -> int = <fun>
# length [1;2;3;4;5];;
- : int = 5
```

- Joining two lists

```
# let rec append = function
  | [], l -> l
  | hd::tl, l -> hd :: append (tl,l);;
val append : 'a list * 'a list -> 'a list = <fun>
# append ([1;2;3;4], [5;6;7]);;
- : int list = [1; 2; 3; 4; 5; 6; 7]
```

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Type declaration

- Type is defined from simpler types using type constructors: *, |, list, array, ...
- Type definition in Ocaml
- Example:

```
# type int_pair = int*int;;  
type int_pair = int * int  
# let v:int_pair = (1,1);;  
val v : int_pair = (1, 1)
```

```
type name = typedef ;;  
type name1 = typedef1  
and name2 = typedef2  
...  
and namen = typedefn ;;
```

C:

```
typedef char byte;  
typedef struct {int m;} A;  
typedef struct {int m;} B;  
A x; B y;  
x=y; /* incompatible types in assignment */
```

Parametrized types

- Type declarations can include type variables
- **Type variable** is a variable that can stand for arbitrary type
- Types that include variables are called **parametrized types** or also polymorphic types
- Parametrized type in Ocaml:

```
# type ('a,'b) pair = 'a*'b;;  
type ('a, 'b) pair = 'a * 'b  
# let v:(char,int) pair = ('a',1);;  
val v : (char, int) pair = ('a', 1)
```

```
type 'a name = typedef ;;  
type ('a1 . . . 'an) name = typedef ;;
```

Products

- Products of types $T_1 * T_2 * \dots * T_n$
 - Denotation: Cartesian product of sets that correspond to types $T_1 T_2 \dots T_n$
 - $I(T_1 * T_2 * \dots * T_n) = I(T_1) \times I(T_2) \times \dots \times I(T_n)$
- Examples in Ocaml:
- Operations
 - Pattern matching
 - fst, snd

```
# fst;;  
- : 'a * 'b -> 'a = <fun>  
# snd;;  
- : 'a * 'b -> 'b = <fun>
```

```
# let (a,b,c) = (1,"2",'3');;  
val a : int = 1  
val b : string = "2"  
val c : char = '3'  
# let first t = match t with  
    x,_,_ -> x ;;  
val first : 'a * 'b * 'c -> 'a = <fun>  
# first a ;;  
- : int = 1
```

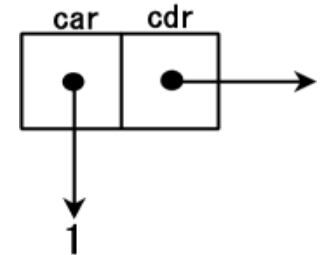
Product: Ocaml examples

```
# type 'param paired_with_integer = int * 'param ;;  
type 'a paired_with_integer = int * 'a  
# type specific_pair = float paired_with_integer ;;  
type specific_pair = float paired_with_integer  
# let x:specific_pair = (3, 3.14) ;;  
val x : specific_pair = 3, 3.14
```

```
# type ('a,'b,'c) triple = 'a*'b*'c;;  
type ('a, 'b, 'c) triple = 'a * 'b * 'c  
# let t = 1,'1',"1";;  
val t : int * char * string = (1, '1', "1")  
# let t:(int,char,string) triple = 1,'1',"1";;  
val t : (int, char, string) triple = (1, '1', "1")
```

Lists

- Functional and logic languages
 - Work via recursion and higher-order functions
 - In Lisp a program is a list; can extend itself at run time
 - Built-in polymorphic functions to manipulate arbitrary lists
- Lists in Lisp
 - Two pointers: First (car) and Rest (cdr)
 - Names are historical accidents
(contents of address/decrement register)
 - Lists are implemented in this way in Lisp
 - Also in Python, Prolog
 - Lists in Lisp are heterogeneous (of different types)



Lists

- Lists in ML-family
 - Lists in ML are homogeneous (of the same type)
 - Chains of blocks including element and a pointer to the next block
 - Also Clu (Barbara Liskov, 1974), Haskell
- Lists can also be used in imperative programs
 - Implementation as an example
- Lists work best in a language with automatic garbage collection
 - many of the standard list operations tend to generate garbage

Pattern matching on lists

- Matching lists defined with:
 - Matching the head with a variable; can use ' '
 - Matching the tail with a variable
 - Matching list elements as vars
 - Wild card ' ' instead of a variable
- Examples with `let` statement
 - All examples get warning:
 - Warning 8 [partial-match]:
this pattern-matching is not exhaustive.
Here is an example of a case
that is not matched: []

```
# let h::t = [1; 2; 3; 4];;
val h : int = 1
val t : int list = [2; 3; 4]
# let [a;b;c;d] = [1; 2; 3; 4];;
val a : int = 1
val b : int = 2
val c : int = 3
val d : int = 4
# let h::h1::t = [1; 2; 3; 4];;
val h : int = 1
val h1 : int = 2
val t : int list = [3; 4]
```

Examples: Pattern matching on lists

- Membership test
- Intersection of two lists (as sets)

```
# let rec contains e lst = match lst with
| [] -> false
| hd::_ when e = hd -> true
| _::tl -> contains e tl;;
val contains : 'a -> 'a list -> bool = <fun>
# contains 1 [1;2;3;4;5;6];;
- : bool = true
# contains 10 [1;2;3;4;5;6];;
- : bool = false
```

```
# let rec meet l1 l2 = match l1 with
| [] -> []
| hd::tl when (contains hd l2) -> hd :: meet tl l2
| _::tl -> meet tl l2;;
val meet : 'a list -> 'a list -> 'a list = <fun>
# meet [1;2;3;4;5] [3;4;5;6];;
- : int list = [3; 4; 5]
```


Examples: Pattern matching on lists

- Union of two lists (as sets)

```
# let rec union l1 l2 = match l1 with
  | [] -> l2
  | hd::tl when (contains hd l2) -> union tl l2
  | hd::tl -> hd :: union tl l2;;
val union : 'a list -> 'a list -> 'a list = <fun>
# union [1;2;3;4;5] [4;5;6;10];;
- : int list = [1; 2; 3; 4; 5; 6; 10]
```

Example: Key-value store

- Key-value store implemented in a sorted list
 - Alternative names: dictionary, map, associative array

```
# type ('a,'b) kvstore = ('a*'b) list;;  
type ('a, 'b) kvstore = ('a * 'b) list
```

```
# let empty_kvs : ('a,'b) kvstore = [];;  
val empty_kvs : ('a, 'b) kvstore = []  
# let rec put (k,v) (kvs : ('a,'b) kvstore) : ('a,'b) kvstore =  
    match kvs with  
    | [] -> [(k,v)]  
    | (a,b)::t when k>a -> (a,b)::put (k,v) t  
    | l -> (k,v)::l;;  
val put : 'a * 'b -> ('a, 'b) kvstore -> ('a, 'b) kvstore = <fun>
```

Example: Key-value store

```
# let s = put (5,"five") (put (1,"one") (put (7,"seven") empty_kvs));;  
val s : (int, string) kvstore = [(1, "one"); (5, "five"); (7, "seven")]
```

```
# exception Not_found;;  
# let rec get k (kvs : ('a,'b) kvstore) : 'b = match kvs with  
  | (a,_)::t when k>a -> get k t  
  | (a,b)::_ when a=k -> b  
  | _ -> raise Not_found;;  
val get : 'a -> ('a, 'b) kvstore -> 'b = <fun>  
# get 5 s;;  
- : string = "five"  
# get 8 s;;  
Exception: Not_found.
```

Unions

- Type constructed by union
 - Make a new set by taking the union of existing sets
 - $I(T_1|T_2|\dots|T_n) = I(T_1) \cup I(T_2) \cup \dots \cup I(T_n)$
- Unions in Ocaml
- Operations:
 - Construction of instance
 - Pattern matching

```
type name = ...  
  | Namei ...  
  | Namej of tj ...  
  | Namek of tk * ... * tl ... ;;
```

```
# type coin = Heads | Tails;;  
type coin = | Heads | Tails  
# Tails;;  
- : coin = Tails
```

Example: Tarot

```
# type suit = Spades | Hearts |  
              Diamonds | Clubs ;;  
# type card =  
    King of suit  
  | Queen of suit  
  | Knight of suit  
  | Knave of suit  
  | Minor_card of suit * int  
  | Trump of int  
  | Joker ;;
```

```
# King Spades ;;  
- : card = King Spades  
# Minor_card(Hearts, 10) ;;  
- : card = Minor_card (Hearts, 10)  
# Trump 21 ;;  
- : card = Trump 21
```

Example: Tarot

```
# let rec interval a b = if a = b then [b] else a :: (interval (a+1) b) ;;
val interval : int -> int -> int list = <fun>
# let all_cards s =
    let face_cards = [ Knave s; Knight s; Queen s; King s ]
    and other_cards = List.map (function n -> Minor_card(s,n)) (interval 1 10)
    in face_cards @ other_cards ;;
val all_cards : suit -> card list = <fun>
# all_cards Hearts ;;
- : card list =
[Knave Hearts; Knight Hearts; Queen Hearts; King Hearts;
 Minor_card (Hearts, 1); Minor_card (Hearts, 2); Minor_card (Hearts, 3);
 Minor_card (Hearts, ...); ...]
```

Pattern matching on unions

```
# let string_of_suit = function
  Spades   -> "spades"
  | Diamonds -> "diamonds"
  | Hearts   -> "hearts"
  | Clubs    -> "clubs";;

val string_of_suit : suit -> string = <fun>

# let string_of_card = function
  King c      -> "king of " ^ (string_of_suit c)
  | Queen c    -> "queen of " ^ (string_of_suit c)
  | Knave c     -> "knave of " ^ (string_of_suit c)
  | Knight c    -> "knight of " ^ (string_of_suit c)
  | Minor_card (c, n) -> (string_of_int n) ^ "of " ^ (string_of_suit c)
  | Trump n     -> (string_of_int n) ^ "of trumps"
  | Joker       -> "joker";;

val string_of_card : card -> string = <fun>
```

Outline

- History
- Values
- `let` statement, functions
- Blocks, name spaces
- Recursion
- Polymorphism
- Pattern-matching
- Types in functional languages
- Higher-order functions
- Trees

Higher-order functions

- Higher-order function either takes function as the parameter, or, returns function.
 - We have already seen many examples
- Function **compose** is an example of higher-order function

```
# let compose f g x = f (g x) ;;  
val compose : ('a -> 'b) -> ('c -> 'a) -> 'c -> 'b = <fun>
```

- The result is compositum of two functions stated as parameters compose
- Result is again a function

Example: Higher-order functions

```
# let rec sum_ints (a,b) =  
    if (a > b) then 0 else a + sum_ints (a+1,b);;  
val sum_ints : int * int -> int = <fun>  
# sum_ints (5,7);;  
- : int = 18
```

```
# let cube x = x*x*x;;  
val cube : int -> int = <fun>  
# let rec sum_cubes (a,b) =  
    if (a > b) then 0 else cube a + sum_cubes (a+1,b);;  
val sum_cubes : int * int -> int = <fun>
```

```
# let rec fact x = if x=0 then 1 else x*fact (x-1);;  
val fact : int -> int = <fun>  
# let rec sum_facts (a,b) =  
    if (a > b) then 0 else fact a + sum_facts (a+1,b);;  
val sum_facts : int * int -> int = <fun>
```

Example: Higher-order functions

- Functions `sum_ints`, `sum_cubes` in `sum_facts` can be generalized by implementing `sum f (a,b)`.
- Function `sum f (a,b)` is example of a function in Curry form.
 - All functions `sum_*` can be now constructed.

```
# let rec sum f (a,b) =  
    if (a > b) then 0 else f a + sum f (a+1,b);;  
val sum : (int -> int) -> int * int -> int = <fun>
```

```
# let sum_ints = sum (function x -> x);;  
val sum_ints : int * int -> int = <fun>  
# sum_ints (1,5);;  
- : int = 15  
# let sum_cubes = sum cube;;  
val sum_cubes : int * int -> int = <fun>  
# let sum_facts = sum fact;;  
val sum_facts : int * int -> int = <fun>  
# sum_facts (2,4);;  
- : int = 32
```

Currying

- Function with more than one argument can be represented by sequence of functions with one argument (Currying)
- Curry functions can be evaluated partially in order to get some specific function
 - Intermediate functions can be used to define a new fun.
 - They can be linked with other function
 - We will see an example...
- Let's have a look at the example of functions that transform a function in Curry form into ordinary function, and back.

Example: Currying

```
# let curry f = function x -> function y -> f (x,y);;
val curry : ('a * 'b -> 'c) -> 'a -> 'b -> 'c = <fun>
# let uncurry f = function (x,y) -> f x y;;
val uncurry : ('a -> 'b -> 'c) -> 'a * 'b -> 'c = <fun>
# uncurry add1;;
- : int * int -> int = <fun>
# curry(uncurry add1);;
- : int -> int -> int = <fun>
# (uncurry add1) (2,3);;
- : int = 5
# curry(uncurry add1) 2 3;;
- : int = 5
```

```
# let add1 x y = x + y;;
val add1 : int -> int -> int = <fun>
# add1 3 4;;
- : int = 7
```

```
# let add2 (x,y) = x + y;;
val add2 : int*int -> int = <fun>
# add2 (3,4);;
- : int = 7
```

Higher-order functions on lists

- Function **map** is an example of higher-order function

```
# let rec map f l =  
  if null l then []  
  else f(List.hd l)::(map f (List.tl l));;  
val map : ('a -> 'b) -> 'a list -> 'b list = <fun>  
# let square x = string_of_int (x*x) ;;  
val square : int -> string = <fun>  
# map square [1; 2; 3; 4] ;;  
- : string list = ["1"; "4"; "9"; "16"]
```

- Higher-order functions can be useful as **programming tool**
 - Used to manipulate big data! Map-Reduce and Spark.

Higher-order functions on lists

- Function `for_all` is an example of higher-order function
 - Universal quantification for a property expressed as boolean function `f` on elements of list `l`

```
# let rec for_all f l =  
  if null l then true  
  else (f (List.hd l)) && for_all f (List.tl l);;  
val for_all : ('a -> bool) -> 'a list -> bool = <fun>  
# for_all (function n -> n<>0) [-3; -2; -1; 1; 2; 3] ;;  
- : bool = true  
# for_all (function n -> n<>0) [-3; -2; 0; 1; 2; 3] ;;  
- : bool = false
```

Higher-order functions on lists

```
# type 'a option = Some of 'a | None;;  
type 'a option = Some of 'a | None
```

```
# let div5 n = if (n mod 5 = 0) then Some n else None;;  
val div5 : int -> int option = <fun>  
# let rec find_map f = function    (* from module List *)  
  | [] -> None  
  | h::t when (f h)=None -> find_map f t  
  | h::_ -> (f h);;  
val find_map : ('a -> 'b option) -> 'a list -> 'b option = <fun>  
# find_map div5 [1;2;3;4;5];;  
- : int option = Some 5
```


Aggregate functions

- Folding a list

- $\text{fold_left } f \ a \ [e_1; e_2; \dots ; e_n] = f \ (\dots (f \ (f \ a \ e_1) \ e_2) \ \dots \ e_n).$

- Parameters

- $f : 'a \rightarrow 'b \rightarrow 'a$

- $a : 'a$

- Initial value

- $[e_1; \dots ; e_n] : 'b \text{ list}$

- Algorithm

- Liner recursion

- Result is computed in the second parameter

- Folding starts on the left side of l;
it is computed when $l = []$.

```
# let rec fold_left f a l =  
  if null l then a  
  else fold_left f (f a (List.hd l)) (List.tl l) ;;  
val fold_left : ('a -> 'b -> 'a) -> 'a -> 'b list -> 'a = <fun>
```

```
# let sum_list = fold_left (+) 0 ;;  
val sum_list : int list -> int = <fun>  
# sum_list [2;4;7] ;;  
- : int = 13  
# let concat_list = fold_left (^) "";;  
val concat_list : string list -> string = <fun>  
# concat_list ["Hello "; "world"; "!"] ;;  
- : string = "Hello world!"
```

Aggregate functions

- Folding a list

- $\text{fold_right } f \ a \ [e_1; e_2; \dots ; e_n] = f \ e_1 \ (f \ e_2 \ (\dots (f \ e_n a) \dots))$.

```
# let rec fold_right f a l =  
  if null l then a  
  else f (List.hd l) (fold_right f a (List.tl l)) ;;  
val fold_left : ('a -> 'b -> 'a) -> 'a -> 'b list -> 'a = <fun>
```

- Parameters are the same as in `fold_left`

- Algorithm

- Linear recursion
 - Folding starts at the right-hand side of `l`
 - Initial `a` is used when recursion is completed
 - The result is built backwards: $f \ e_1 \dots (f \ e_{n-1} (f \ e_n \ a)) \dots$

Functions that construct functions

- Function constructs function

```
# let rec iterate n f =  
  if n = 0 then (function x -> x)  
  else compose f (iterate (n-1) f) ;;  
val iterate : int -> ('a -> 'a) -> 'a -> 'a = <fun>
```

- Construction of function power

```
# let rec power i n =  
  let i_times = ( * ) i in  
  iterate n i_times 1 ;;  
val power : int -> int -> int = <fun>  
# power 2 8 ;;  
- : int = 256
```

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Example: Binary search tree

```
# type 'a bin_tree =  
  Empty  
  | Node of 'a bin_tree * 'a * 'a bin_tree ;;  
# let t = Node (Node (Empty,2,Empty), 5, Node (Empty,7,Empty));;  
val t : int bin_tree = Node (Node (Empty, 2, Empty), 5, Node (Empty, 7, Empty))
```

```
# let rec insert x = function  
  Empty -> Node(Empty, x, Empty)  
  | Node(lb, r, rb) -> if x < r then Node(insert x lb, r, rb)  
                        else Node(lb, r, insert x rb) ;;  
val insert : 'a -> 'a bin_tree -> 'a bin_tree = <fun>
```

Example:

Binary search tree

```
# let rec member x = function
  Empty -> false
  | Node(_,e,_) when e=x -> true
  | Node(l,_,r) -> member x l || member x r;;
val member : 'a -> 'a bin_tree -> bool = <fun>
```

```
# let rec member x = function
  Empty -> false
  | Node(_,e,_) when e=x -> true
  | Node(l,v,r) when x<v -> member x l
  | _ -> member x r;;
val member : 'a -> 'a bin_tree -> bool = <fun>
```

```
# let rec height = function
  Empty -> 0
  | Node( l, _, r ) -> 1 + max (height l) (height r);;
val height : 'a bin_tree -> int = <fun>
# height a;;
- : int = 9
```

Example: Binary search tree

```
# let rec list_of_tree = function
  Empty -> []
  | Node(lb, r, rb) -> (list_of_tree lb) @ (r :: (list_of_tree rb)) ;;
val list_of_tree : 'a bin_tree -> 'a list = <fun>
```

```
# let rec tree_of_list = function
  [] -> Empty
  | h :: t -> insert h (tree_of_list t) ;;
val tree_of_list : 'a list -> 'a bin_tree = <fun>
```

Example: Binary search tree

```
# let t = tree_of_list [1;3;5;7;2;6;4];;  
val t : int bin_tree =  
  Node (Node (Node (Empty, 1, Empty), 2, Node (Empty, 3, Empty)), 4,  
    Node (Node (Empty, 5, Empty), 6, Node (Empty, 7, Empty)))
```

```
# let sort x = list_of_tree (tree_of_list x) ;;  
val sort : 'a list -> 'a list = <fun>  
# sort [5; 8; 2; 7; 1; 0; 3; 6; 9; 4] ;;  
- : int list = [0; 1; 2; 3; 4; 5; 6; 7; 8; 9]
```