

Reflections on Workshop 1

Lecture 2

F# Language & Syntax Reference

➤ Bin the bracket

- ❖ Blocks and sub-blocks indicated by line indentation
 - No block brackets { }
 - Optional statement/expression end ";" end of line indicates end of statement if that makes sense
 - Start of inner block marked by indentation
- ❖ Good tutorial on F# block syntax: <http://bit.ly/1rTcXOw>

➤ Finding documentation

- ❖ Google topic e.g. "F# records" to get good references
 - MSDN - best in-depth resource (usually 1st hit in google)
 - fsharpforfunandprofit - good intro to many topics
- ❖ Check library list for many textbooks, useful for in-depth examples

➤ For language nerds: the complete F# 4.0 language reference

- ❖ <http://bit.ly/22fUacC>

F# Language Features: Coverage so far

➤ Types

- ❖ `int` , `float` , `string` , `char`
- ❖ `bool`
 - `true` , `false`
- ❖ `unit`
 - `()`
- ❖ `T1 * T2` (*tuple or product type*)
 - `t1` , `t2`
- ❖ `T1 -> T2` (*function type*)
- ❖ *polymorphic type variable*
 - `'a` 'T1
- ❖ *range (int or float)*
 - `3..10` , `0.5..2.5`
 - `1..2..9` , `1..-3..-5`
- ❖ *discriminated union (sum type)*
 - `| Age of int*int | Retired`
- ❖ `Option`
 - `Some 22` , `None`
- ❖ `{Person:string ; Age:int}` (*record type*)
 - `{Person = "Me" ; Age = 10}`
 - `{rec1 with Age = 12}`

➤ Collections

- ❖ `List`
 - `[a ; b]` , `[]` , `::` , `[1..10]`
 - `lst.[10]` , `lst.[1..10]`
- ❖ `Array`
 - `[|a ; b|]` `x.[n]` `x.[a..b]`
- ❖ `Map`
 - `{"cat",1; "dog",10}`
 - `m.[k]`
- ❖ `Set`
- ❖ `Seq`

➤ Language Constructs (Basic)

- ❖ *type definition*
 - `type ...`
 - `type ... and ...`
- ❖ *let definition*
 - `let`
 - `let rec ...`
 - `let rec ... and ...`
 - `let mutable`
- ❖ `fun ->`
- ❖ `if then else`
 - `&&` , `||` , `not`
 - `=` , `<>` , `>` , `<` , `>=` , `<=`
- ❖ `e1 ; e2`
 - `ignore`
- ❖ `x <- 1` (*assignment*)

➤ Language Constructs

- ❖ *pipeline: |>*
 - Composition: `>>`
 - Backward pipeline: `<|`
- ❖ `match ... with | p1 -> e1`
 - `when` (guard expression)
 - List, tuple patterns
 - Active pattern
 - Partial active pattern
- ❖ *operators*
 - `functionise: (op)`
 - Custom definition
 - `inline`
- ❖ *exceptions*
 - `failwithf`
 - `try with`
 - `try with finally`
 - `raise`
 - `reraise`
- ❖ *computation expression*
- ❖ *seq comprehension*
- ❖ `module`
- ❖ `interface`
- ❖ `class`

Programs in F#

➤ Programs are sequences of expressions and let-bindings

❖ The last item in the sequence must be an expression and is the value of the program

➤ Let-bindings introduce sub-blocks from which inner bindings cannot escape

➤ Let-bindings are identical to constant declarations in an imperative language

```
let sq x = x*x  
sq 3 + sq 4
```

x is bound to x*x in
sq 3 + sq 4

```
let sq x = x*x  
printfn "x=%d" x  
sq 3 + sq 4
```

1.
2.

- Expressions are evaluated in sequence
- Last expression is value
- Earlier expressions only relevant for side effects

```
let pythag a b =  
    let sq x = x*x  
    sq a + sq b  
pythag 3 4
```

- Sub-blocks delimit scope of inner lets
- Here sq is local to the code in the sub-block

F# Definition order

➤ F# enforces "no forward references"

- ❖ Enables precise type inference as you type
- ❖ Factor code as you write it using **parameters** instead of forward references (see examples).
 - The use of a parameter to feed in a dependence is called **dependency injection** in OOP.
 - It prevents (less maintainable) cycles of references by allowing the forward part of the cycle to be replaced by a parameter. **More later.**

➤ Love it or hate it

- ❖ As above it forces better style
- ❖ It can be annoying when functions inside one file must be ordered to prevent backward references

```
1  let f1 x =  
2      f2 x + f2 x // forward reference  
3  
4  let f2 x = x * x  
5  
6  let result = f1 2
```

```
9  let f1a f x = // no forward reference.  
10     f x + f x  
11  
12  let f2a x = x * x  
13  
14  let resulta = f1a f2a 2 // f2a is no longer forward reference
```

Types in F#

- F# makes no distinction between functions and non-functions. Expressions can be either.
- Every expression (and therefore every value) has a static **type**.
 - ❖ F# uses the *Hindley-Milner* type system which can infer types of all expressions
 - ❖ Type checking catches many **semantic** programming errors at compile-time
 - ❖ Good tools check types as you edit. Types *and parameters* of functions can be displayed by hovering mouse:
 - List.collect: **mapping**: (T -> U list) -> **list**: T list -> U list
- While editing auto-completion gives possible functions
 - ❖ **List.** (displays all List functions with info)

Example	Type
int, float	scalar types
T1 -> T2	Type of function with parameter T1 returning value of type T2
T1 * T2	Tuple with elements type T1 and T2
T1 list	List with elements of type T1
List.map	(T1->'b) -> 'a list -> 'b list
List.collect	('a -> 'b list) -> 'a list -> 'b list

Use of let definitions

- Use many local value definitions to make complex calculations simpler.
- Give local definitions descriptive names.
- Use pipelines instead of multiple `let` definitions where this is clearer and the intermediate value is immediately used.

Unnecessary local names

```
let deletedPairs = deleteBadpairs pairlist  
let triples = List.map makeTriple deletedPairs  
printTriple triples
```

Idiomatic F# uses pipeline

```
pairlist |> deleteBadPairs |> List.map makeTriple |> printTriple
```

or

```
pairlist  
|> deleteBadPairs  
|> List.map makeTriple  
|> printTriple
```

How is **let** different from assignment (e.g. in C++)?

- Here the line 5 let-binding in lines creates a new copy of **a** and overrules the line 2 let-binding for **a** in lines 5 & 6.
 - ❖ This is allowed
 - ❖ It is **bad practice**
- **f1()** references to the first **a** binding and therefore returns 1!
- **a**, **f1**, **f2** are all **immutable**

```
1  let testLet () =  
2      let a = 1  
3      let f1() = a  
4      let a = 2  
5      let f2() = a  
6      printfn "a=%d, f1()=%d, f2=%d" a (f1()) (f2())
```


Speed

Mostly speed does not matter
Programmers should design correct code -
not do low-level speed optimisation

There are exceptions!

➤ Work out whether efficiency is required

- ❖ Usually with modern CPUs it is not!

➤ Functional solutions are inefficient when the same computation gets repeated

➤ If efficiency is needed, for the W1 deliverable each non-zero term of the sine series can be generated efficiently from the *previous term* in a loop:

$$\text{❖ } T_n(x) = -\frac{x^2 T_{n-1}(x)}{2n(2n+1)}$$

$$\text{❖ } T_1(x) = x$$

$$\text{❖ } \sin(x) \cong \sum_{i=1}^{i=N} T_n(x)$$

➤ You can implement this using recursion, or List.fold

- ❖ Some types of recursion will automatically be turned into equivalent loops!
- ❖ See Worksheet 2

Worksheet 2

➤ Concepts

- ❖ High order functions and currying
- ❖ Type polymorphism
- ❖ Recursion and Tail Recursion

➤ F# Practice

- ❖ Collections: List, Array, (Set), Map

Currying

- In C function has fixed number of parameters
- In F#, technically, every function has just one parameter!
- Two different F# ways to get multiple parameters
 - ❖ Tuple
 - ❖ Currying
- Big advantage of currying
 - ❖ Can use partial application
 - ❖ e.g. with List.map
- Use curried functions in idiomatic F#

Tuples

```
let addT (x,y) = x+y
```

// (x,y) is a 2-tuple

// addT has a single parameter of type tuple

```
addT: int*int -> int
```

```
addT(1,2) // usage
```

Currying

```
let addC x y = x+y // curried function
```

Same as:

```
let addC x = (fun y -> x+y)
```

```
let addC = (fun x -> (fun y -> x+y))
```

```
addC 1 2 // usage parses as: (addC 1) 2
```

When first parameter is applied it returns a function that accepts the second parameter to return the result. As a function type:

```
addC: int -> (int -> int) // brackets not needed
```

// -> is right associative

```
let add5 = addC 5
```

// add5 is now a function which adds 5

High order functions and currying

```
List.filter pred lst :  
  ('T -> Bool) -> 'T list -> 'T list
```

pred: ('T -> bool) *a specific predicate*

a specific List filter:

```
(List.filter pred): 'T list -> 'T list
```

➤ Use **currying** to generate *specific* filter functions by **partial application** of `List.filter`

```
let retainPositive =  
  List.filter (fun x -> x >= 0)
```

➤ Functional combinators operate on functions as data

❖ Complex impedance is represented as a function:

freq: float -> Complex

❖ Series, parallel connection implemented as **high order functions**

```
open System.Numerics  
let pi = System.Math.PI  
let R x = fun f -> Complex(x, 0.0)  
let C x = fun f -> Complex(0.0, -1.0/(2.0*pi*x*f))  
let L x = fun f -> Complex(0.0, 2.0*pi*x*f)  
  
let seriesConnect c1 c2 f = (c1 f) + (c2 f)  
  
let parallelConnect c1 c2 f = // note series, parallel are  
  let x1 = c1 f                // curried functions  
  let x2 = c2 f  
  x1*x2 / (x1+x2)  
  
let ( ++ ) = seriesConnect  
let ( ||| ) = parallelConnect  
  
let network = (R 0.1 ++ L 2.0) ||| C 3.0
```

let (++) = f
 // defines ++ as infix
 // operator equivalent of f
a ++ b ≡ f a b

Function application: the hidden operator

➤ Function application: •

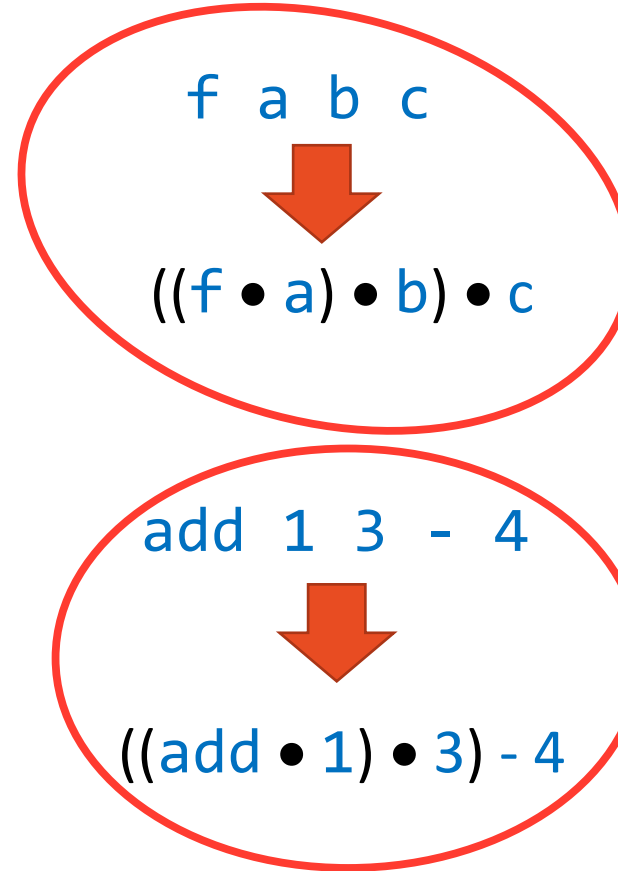
$$\diamond f(x) = f \bullet x$$

➤ Implied between any two adjacent items

➤ Left associative

❖ Why is this necessary?

➤ Binds tighter than other operators



F# source

Parsed as

F# source

Parsed as

**Unusual syntax found in ML-family functional languages
Makes complex expressions with curried functions easy**

Type Polymorphism: 'a or 'T

➤ `List.map`: what is its type?

- ❖ Problem is that the type of `List.map` depends on the context in which it is used.
- ❖ Any fixed type is too specific
- ❖ `let res = List.map f lst` we want the type of `f` to match the type of `lst` and `res`.

➤ Solution: ('a -> 'b) -> 'a list -> 'b list

- ❖ 'a and 'b are called *polymorphic* or *generic* type variables
- ❖ 'a and 'b can be changed as needed to fit a function call:

```
[1 ; 2 ; 3 ] |> List.map (fun n -> 0.5 * (float n))
```

In this example: 'a = int 'b = float

- ❖ 'a and 'b are implicitly *universally quantified*:

$\forall 'a. \forall 'b. ('a \rightarrow 'b) \rightarrow 'a \text{ list} \rightarrow 'b \text{ list}$

- ❖ This says for any `List.map` function call 'a, 'b can be freely chosen but the two 'a parameters and the two 'b parameters must have definite values for each function call.

Type Polymorphism (2)

- Type polymorphism is a very hot topic we will return to later
- Polymorphic types make type inference more difficult
 - ❖ To infer a function type each polymorphic type variable must be instantiated in the most general way to fit.
 - ❖ Hindley-Milner type systems (e.g. F#) have a fast computable algorithm to do this.
 - ❖ More complex type systems may not have decidable type inference or checking
- In Java and C# polymorphic type variables are called "generics".
Polymorphism is more complex because of the *OOP type hierarchy*.

Tail recursion

➤ A function call is tail recursive if its return value is also the return value of the calling function

- ❖ Nothing needs be done after the call returns
- ❖ Allows compiler optimisation replacing subroutine branch by a jump with no stack use
- ❖ The tail recursion turns into a loop

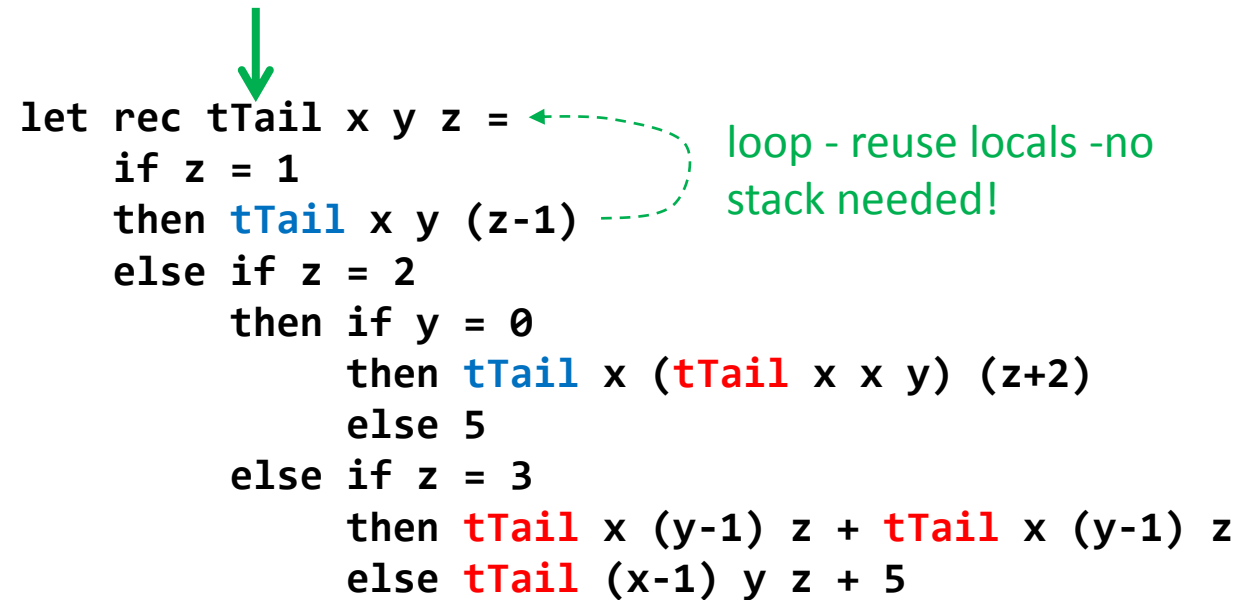
➤ Tail Recursive call is always outermost: except for conditional constructs that get executed first

➤ Tail recursion is more efficient - uses loops instead of function calls

non-tail recursive call

tail recursive call

Recursive function



```
let rec tTail x y z =  
  if z = 1  
  then tTail x y (z-1)  
  else if z = 2  
    then if y = 0  
         then tTail x (tTail x x y) (z+2)  
         else 5  
    else if z = 3  
         then tTail x (y-1) z + tTail x (y-1) z  
         else tTail (x-1) y z + 5
```

When is a loop not just a loop....

When its a tail recursive function call!