Learning to program with F#

Jon Sporring

August 2, 2016

# Contents

1	Preface	4		
2	Introduction	5		
Ι	$\mathrm{F}\#$ basics	7		
3	Executing F# code 3.1 Source code	8		
4	Quick-start guide			
5	6 - 11	$\frac{24}{25}$		
6	Constants, functions, and variables 6.1 Values 6.2 Non-recursive functions 6.3 User-defined operators 6.4 The Printf function 6.5 Variables	35 38 40		
7	In-code documentation 4			
8	8.1 For and while loops .  8.2 Conditional expressions .  8.2.1 Programming intermezzo .  8.3 Pattern matching .  8.4 Recursive functions .	53 54 55 57		
9	9.1 Tuples          9.2 Lists          9.3 Arrays	62		

II	Imperative programming	<b>75</b>			
10	Exceptions 10.1 Exception Handling	<b>77</b> 77			
11	Testing programs	78			
12	Input/Output         12.1 Console I/O				
13	Graphical User Interfaces	81			
14	The Collection  14.1 System.String	87 89 89 89			
15	Imperative programming 15.1 Introduction	91 91			
II	I Declarative programming	96			
16	Types and measures 16.1 Unit of Measure	<b>97</b> 97			
17	Functional programming	100			
ΙV	Structured programming 1	L01			
18	18 Namespaces and Modules 10				
19	Object-oriented programming	104			
$\mathbf{V}$	Appendix 1	105			
A	Number systems on the computer A.1 Binary numbers				
В	Commonly used character sets           B.1 ASCII            B.2 ISO/IEC 8859            B.3 Unicode	110			

D Language Details	117
Bibliography	119
Index	<b>120</b>

## Chapter 9

## Ordered series of data

 $^{1}$  F# is tuned to work with ordered series, and there are several built-in lists with various properties making them useful for different tasks. E.g.,

```
let solution a b c =
  let d = b ** 2.0 - 2.0 * a * c
  if d < 0.0 then
      (nan, nan)
  else
    let xp = (-b + sqrt d) / (2.0 * a)
    let xn = (-b - sqrt d) / (2.0 * a)
      (xp,xn)

let (a, b, c) = (1.0, 0.0, -1.0)
let (xp, xn) = solution a b c
printfn "0 = %A * x ** 2.0 + %A * x + %A" a b c
printfn " has solutions %A and %A" xn xp</pre>
```

```
0 = 1.0 * x ** 2.0 + 0.0 * x + -1.0
has solutions -0.7071067812 and 0.7071067812
```

Listing 9.1: tuplesQuadraticEq.fsx - Using tuples to gather values.

F# has 4 built-in list types: strings, tuples, lists, arrays, and sequences. Strings were discussed in Chapter 5, and tuples, lists, arrays, and sequences following this (simplified) syntax:

```
tupleList = expr | expr "," tupleList
listOrArrayList = expr | expr ";" listOrArrayList
range-exp = expr ".." expr [".." expr]
comp-expr =
 "let" pat "=" expr "in" comp-expr
 | "use" pat = expr "in" comp-expr
  | ("yield" | "yield!") expr
  | "if" expr "then" comp-expr ["else" comp-expr]
  | "match" expr "with" comp-rules
  | "try" comp-expr "with" comp-rules
  | "try" comp—expr "finally" expr
  | "while" expr "do" expr ["done"]
  | "for" ident "=" expr "to" expr "do" comp—expr ["done"]
 | "for" pat "in" expr-or-range-expr "do" comp-expr ["done"]
 | comp-expr ";" comp-expr
short-comp-expr = "for" pat "in" (expr | range-expr) "->" expr
comp-or-range-expr = comp-expr| short-comp-expr | range-expr
```

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>1</sup>possibly add maps and sets as well.

<sup>2</sup>Tuples are a direct extension of constants. They are immutable and do not have concatenations nor indexing operations. This is in contrast to lists. Lists are also immutable, but have a simple syntax for concatenation and indexing. Arrays are mutable lists, and support higher order structures such as tables and 3 dimensional arrays. Sequences are like lists, but with the added advantage of a very flexible construction mechanism, and the option of representing infinite long sequences. In the following, we will present these data structures in detail.

### 9.1 Tuples

Tuples are unions of immutable types,

· tuple

```
tupleList = expr | expr "," tupleList
expr = ...
| tupleList
| ...
```

and the they are identified by the , lexeme. Most often the tuple is enclosed in parentheses, but that is not required. Consider the tripel, also known as a 3-tuple, (2,true,"hello") in interactive mode,

```
> let tp = (2, true, "hello")
- printfn "%A" tp;;
(2, true, "hello")

val tp : int * bool * string = (2, true, "hello")
val it : unit = ()
```

Listing 9.2: fsharpi, Definition of a tuple.

The values 2, true, and "hello" are members, and the number of elements of a tuple is its length. From the response of F# we see that the tuple is inferred to have the type int \* bool \* string, where the \* is cartesian product between the three sets. Notice, that tuples can be products of any types and have lexical scope like value and function bindings. Notice also, that a tuple may be printed as a single entity by the %A placeholder. In the example, we bound tp to the tuple, the opposite is also possible,

 $\cdot$  member  $\cdot$  length

```
> let deconstructNPrint tp =
- let (a, b, c) = tp
- printfn "tp = (%A, %A, %A)" a b c
-
- deconstructNPrint (2, true, "hello")
- deconstructNPrint (3.14, "Pi", 'p');;
tp = (2, true, "hello")
tp = (3.14, "Pi", 'p')
val deconstructNPrint : 'a * 'b * 'c -> unit
```

 $<sup>^2</sup>$ Spec-4.0: grammar for list and array expressions are subsets of computation list and array expressions.

```
val it : unit = ()
```

Listing 9.3: fsharpi, Definition of a tuple.

In this a function is defined that takes 1 argument, a 3-tuple, and which is bound to a tuple with 3 named members. Since we used the %A placeholder in the printfn function, then the function is generic and can be called with 3-tuples of different types. Note, don't confuse a function of n arguments with a function of an n-tuple. The later has only 1 argument, and the difference is the ,'s. Another example is let solution a b c = ..., which is the beginning of the function definition in Listing 9.1. It is a function of 3 arguments, while let solution (a, b, c)= ... would be a function of 1 argument, which is a 3-tuple. Functions of several arguments makes currying easy, i.e., we could define a new function which fixes the quadratic term to be 0 as let solutionToLinear = solution 0.0, that is, without needing to specify anything else. With tuples, we would need the slightly more complicated, let solutionToLinear (b, c)= solution (0.0, b, c).

Advice

Tuples comparison are defined similarly as strings. Tuples of different lengths are different. For tuples of equal length, then they are compared element by element. E.g., (1,2) = (1,3) is false, while (1,2) = (1,2) is true. The <> operator is the boolean negation of the = operator. For the <, <=, >, and >= operators, the strings are ordered alphabetically like, such that ('a', 'b', 'c') < ('a', 'b', 's') & ('c', 'o', 's') is true, that is, the < operator on two tuples is true, if the left operand should come before the right, when sorting alphabetically like.

```
let lessThan (a, b, c) (d, e, f) =
    if a <> d then a < d
    elif b <> e then b < d
    elif c <> f then c < f
    else false

let printTest x y =
    printfn "%A < %A is %b" x y (lessThan x y)

let a = ('a', 'b', 'c');
let b = ('d', 'e', 'f');
let c = ('a', 'b', 'b');
let d = ('a', 'b', 'b');
let d = ('a', 'b', 'd');
printTest a b
printTest a c
printTest a d</pre>
```

```
('a', 'b', 'c') < ('d', 'e', 'f') is true
('a', 'b', 'c') < ('a', 'b', 'b') is false
('a', 'b', 'c') < ('a', 'b', 'd') is true
```

Listing 9.4: tupleCompare.fsx - Tuples are compared as strings are compared alphabetically.

The algorithm for deciding the boolean value of (a1, a2) < (b1, b2) is as follows: we start by examining the first elements, and if la1 and b1 are different, then the (a1, a2) < (b1, b2) is equal to a1 < b1. If la1 and b1 are equal, then we move onto the next letter and repeat the investigation. The <=, >, and >= operators are defined similarly.

Binding tuples to mutuals does not make the tuple mutable, e.g.,

```
let mutable a = 1
let mutable b = 2
let c = (a, b)
printfn "%A, %A, %A" a b c
a <- 3
printfn "%A, %A, %A" a b c</pre>
```

```
1, 2, (1, 2)
```

```
3, 2, (1, 2)
```

Listing 9.5: tupleOfMutables.fsx - A mutable change value, but the tuple defined by it does not refer to the new value.

However, tuples may be mutual such that new tuple values can be assigned to it, e.g., in the Fibonacci example, we can write a more compact script by using mutable tuples and the fst and snd functions as follows.

```
let fib n =
   if n < 1 then
    0
   else
    let mutable prev = (0, 1)
   for i = 2 to n do
       prev <- (snd prev, (fst prev) + (snd prev))
       snd prev

for i = 0 to 10 do
    printfn "fib(%d) = %d" i (fib i)</pre>
```

```
fib(0) = 0
fib(1) = 1
fib(2) = 1
fib(3) = 2
fib(4) = 3
fib(5) = 5
fib(6) = 8
fib(7) = 13
fib(8) = 21
fib(9) = 34
fib(10) = 55
```

Listing 9.6: fibTuple.fsx - Calculating Fibonacci numbers using mutable tuple.

In this example, the central computation has been packed into a single line, prev <- (snd prev), (fst prev)+ (snd prev), where both the calculation of fib(n) = fib(n-2) + fib(n-1) and the rearrangement of memory to hold the new values fib(n) and fib(n-1) based on the old values fib(n-2)+fib(n-1). While this may look elegant and short there is the risk of obfuscation, i.e., writing compact code that is difficult to read, and in this case, an unprepared reader of the code may not easily understand the computation nor appreciate its elegance without an accompanying explanation. Hence, always keep an eye out for compact and concise ways to write code, but never at the expense of readability.

 $\cdot$  obfuscation

Advice

#### 9.2 Lists

Lists are unions of immutable values of the same type and have a more flexible structure than tuples. Its grammar follows *computation expressions*, which is very rich and shared with arrays and sequences, and we will delay a discussion on most computation expressions to Section 9.4, and here just consider a subset of the grammar:

 $\cdot$  list

· computation expressions

```
listOrArrayList = expr | expr ";" listOrArrayList
range-exp = expr ".." expr [".." expr]
expr = ...
    | "[" (listOrArrayList | ... | range-expr) "]" (* computation list expression *)
    | ...
```

Simple examples of a list grammars are, [expr; expr; ...; expr], [expr ".."expr], [expr ".."expr], e.g., an explicit list let lst = [1; 2; 3; 4; 5], which may be

written shortly as range expression as let lst = [1 .. 5], and ranges may include a step size let lst = [1 .. 2 .. 5], which is the same as let lst = [1; 3; 5]. Lists may be indexed and concatenated much like strings, e.g.,

 $\begin{array}{c} \cdot \ \text{range} \\ \text{expression} \end{array}$ 

```
let printList (lst : int list) =
  for elm in lst do
    printf "%A " elm
  printfn ""

let printListAlt (lst : int list) =
  for i = 0 to lst.Length - 1 do
    printf "%A " lst.[i]
  printfn ""

let a = [1; 2;]
  let b = [3; 4; 5]
  let c = a @ b
  let d = 0 :: c
  printfn "%A, %A, %A, %A" a b c d
  printList d
  printListAlt d
```

```
[1; 2], [3; 4; 5], [1; 2; 3; 4; 5], [0; 1; 2; 3; 4; 5]
0 1 2 3 4 5
0 1 2 3 4 5
```

**Listing 9.7:** listIndexing.fsx - Examples of list concatenation, indexing.

A list type is identified with the list keyword, as here a list of integers is int list. Above, we used the <code>@</code> and <code>::</code> concatenation operators, the <code>.[]</code> index method, and the <code>Length</code> property. Notice, as strings, list elements are counted from 0, and thus the last element has <code>lst.Length - 1</code>. In <code>printList</code> the <code>for-in</code> is used, which runs loops through each element of the list and assigns it to the identifier <code>elm</code>. This is in contrast to <code>printListAlt</code>, which uses uses the <code>for-to</code> keyword and explicitly represents the index <code>i</code>. Explicit representation of the index makes more complicated programs, and thus increases the chances of programming errors. Hence, <code>for-in</code> is to be preferred over <code>for-to</code>. Lists support slicing identically to strings, e.g.,

```
· @
· : :
· . []
· Length
```

Advice

```
let lst = ['a' .. 'g']
printfn "%A" lst.[0]
printfn "%A" lst.[3]
printfn "%A" lst.[3..]
printfn "%A" lst.[..3]
printfn "%A" lst.[..3]
printfn "%A" lst.[1..3]
```

```
'a'
'd'
['d'; 'e'; 'f'; 'g']
['a'; 'b'; 'c'; 'd']
['b'; 'c'; 'd']
['a'; 'b'; 'c'; 'd'; 'e'; 'f'; 'g']
```

**Listing 9.8:** listSlicing.fsx - Examples of list slicing. Compare with Listing 5.27.

Lists are well suited for recursive functions and pattern matching with, e.g., match-with as illustrated in the next example:

```
let rec printListRec (lst : int list) =
  match lst with
```

```
elm::rest ->
    printf "%A " elm
    printListRec rest
| _ ->
    printfn ""

let a = [1; 2; 3; 4; 5]
printListRec a
```

```
1 2 3 4 5
```

**Listing 9.9:** listPatternMatching.fsx - Examples of list concatenation, indexing.

The pattern 1::rest is the pattern for the first element followed by a list of the rest of the list. This pattern matches all lists except an empty list, hence rest may be empty. Thus the wildcard pattern matching anything including the empty list, will be used only when 1st is empty.

Pattern matching with lists is quite powerful, consider the following problem:

· pattern matching

Given a list of pairs of course names and course grades, calculate the average grade.

A list of course names and grades is [("name1", grade1); ("name2", grade2); ...]. Let's take a recursive solution. First problem will be to iterate through the list. For this we can use pattern matching similarly to Listing 9.9 with (name, grade)::rest. The second problem will be to calculate the average. The average grade is the sum all grades and divide by the number of grades. Assume that we already have made a function, which calculates the sum and n, the sum and number of elements, for rest, then all we need is to add grade to the sum and 1 to n. For an empty list, sum and n should be 0. Thus we arrive at the following solution,

```
let averageGrade courseGrades =
  let rec sumNCount lst =
    match lst with
    | (title, grade)::rest ->
        let (sum, n) = sumNCount rest
        (sum + grade, n + 1)
        | _ -> (0, 0)

let (sum, n) = sumNCount courseGrades
  (float sum) / (float n)

let courseGrades =
    ["Introduction to programming", 95;
    "Linear algebra", 80;
    "User Interaction", 85;]

printfn "Course and grades:\n%A" courseGrades
printfn "Average grade: %.1f" (averageGrade courseGrades)
```

```
Course and grades:
[("Introduction to programming", 95); ("Linear algebra", 80);
("User Interaction", 85)]
Average grade: 86.7
```

Listing 9.10: avgGradesRec.fsx - Calculating a list of average grades using recursion and pattern matching.

Pattern matching and appending is a useful combination, if we wish to produce new from old lists. E.g., a function returning a list of squared entries of its argument can be programmed as,

```
let rec square a =
```

```
match a with
   elm :: rest -> elm*elm :: (square rest)
   | _ -> []

let a = [1 .. 10]
printfn "%A" (square a)
```

```
[1; 4; 9; 16; 25; 36; 49; 64; 81; 100]
```

Listing 9.11: listSquare.fsx - Using pattern matching and list appending elements to lists.

This is a prototypical functional programming style solution, and which uses the :: for 2 different purposes: First the list  $[1 \dots 10]$  is first matched with  $1 :: [2 \dots 10]$ , and then we assume that we have solved the problem for square rest, such that all we need to do is append 1\*1 to the beginning output from square rest. Hence we get, square  $[1 \dots 10] \cap 1*1: square <math>[2 \dots 10] \cap 1*1: (2*2:: square <math>[3 \dots 10]) \cap \dots 1*1: (2*2:: \dots 10*10:: [])$ , where the stopping criterium is reached, when the elm:: rest does not match with a, hence it is empty, which does match the wildcard pattern. More on functional programming in Section 17. The basic properties and members of lists are summarized in Table 9.1. In addition, lists have many other built-in functions, such as functions for converting lists to arrays and sequences,

```
let lst = ['a' .. 'c']
let arr = List.toArray lst
let sq = List.toSeq lst
printfn "%A, %A, %A" lst arr sq
```

```
['a'; 'b'; 'c'], [|'a'; 'b'; 'c'|], ['a'; 'b'; 'c']
```

Listing 9.12: listConversion.fsx - The List module contains functions for conversion to arrays and sequences.

These and more will be discussed in Chapter 14 and Part III. It is possible to make multidimensional lists as lists of lists, e.g.,

```
let a = [[1;2];[3;4;5]]
let row = a.Item 0 in printfn "%A" row
let elm = row.Item 1 in printfn "%A" elm
let elm = (a.Item 0).Item 1 in printfn "%A" elm
```

```
[1; 2]
2
2
```

Listing 9.13: listMultidimensional.fsx - A ragged multidimensional list, built as lists of lists, and its indexing.

The example shows a ragged multidimensional list, since each row has different number of elements. The indexing of a particular element is not elegant, which is why arrays are often preferred in F#.

· ragged multidimensional list

### 9.3 Arrays

One dimensional arrays or just arrays for short are mutable lists of the same type and follow a similar syntax as lists. Its grammar follows *computation expressions*, which will be discussed in Section 9.4. Here we consider a subset of the grammar:

 $\cdot$  computation expressions

```
listOrArrayList = expr | expr ";" listOrArrayList
range-exp = expr ".." expr [".." expr]
expr = ...
```

Function name	Example	Description
Length	<pre>&gt; [1; 2; 3].Length;; val it : int = 3 &gt; let a = [1; 2; 3] in a.Length;; val it : int = 3</pre>	The number of elements in a list
List.Empty	<pre>&gt; let a : int list = List.Empty;; val a : int list = [] &gt; let b = List<int>.Empty;; val b : int list = []</int></pre>	An empty list of specified type
IsEmpty	<pre>&gt; [1; 2; 3].IsEmpty;; val it : bool = false &gt; let a = [1; 2; 3] in a.IsEmpty;; val it : bool = false</pre>	Compare with the empty list
Item	> [1; 2; 3].Item 1;; val it : int = 2 > let a = [1; 2; 3] in a.Item 1;; val it : int = 2	Indexing
Head	<pre>&gt; [1; 2; 3].Head;; val it : int = 1 &gt; let a = [1; 2; 3] in a.Head;; val it : int = 1</pre>	The first element in the list. Exception if empty.
Tail	<pre>&gt; [1; 2; 3].Tail;; val it : int list = [2; 3] &gt; let a = [1; 2; 3] in a.Tail;; val it : int list = [2; 3]</pre>	The list except its first element. Exception if empty.
Cons	<pre>&gt; list.Cons (1, [2; 3]);; val it : int list = [1; 2; 3] &gt; 1 :: [2; 3];; val it : int list = [1; 2; 3]</pre>	Append an element to the front of the list
©	<pre>&gt; [1] @ [2; 3];; val it : int list = [1; 2; 3] &gt; [1; 2] @ [3; 4];; val it : int list = [1; 2; 3; 4] &gt; [1; 2] @ [3];; val it : int list = [1; 2; 3]</pre>	Concatenate two lists

Table 9.1: Basic properties and members of lists. The syntax used in List<int>.Empty ensures that the empty list is of type int.

```
| "[|" (listOrArrayList | ... | range-expr) "|]" (* computation array expression *)
```

Thus the creation of arrays is identical to lists, but there is no explicit operator support for appending and concatenation, e.g.,

```
let printArray (arr : int array) =
  for elm in arr do
    printf "%d " elm
  printf "\n"

let printArrayAlt (arr : int array) =
  for i = 0 to arr.Length - 1 do
    printf "%A " arr.[i]
  printfn ""

let a = [|1; 2;|]
  let b = [|3; 4; 5|]
  let c = Array.append a b
  printfn "%A, %A, %A" a b c
  printArray c
  printArrayAlt c
```

```
[|1; 2|], [|3; 4; 5|], [|1; 2; 3; 4; 5|]
1 2 3 4 5
1 2 3 4 5
```

Listing 9.14: arrayCreation.fsx - Creating arrays with a syntax similarly to lists.

The array type is defined using the array keyword or alternatively the [] lexeme. Arrays cannot be resized, but are mutable,

```
let printArray (a : int array) =
  for i = 0 to a.Length - 1 do
    printf "%d " a.[i]
  printf "\n"

let square (a : int array) =
  for i = 0 to a.Length - 1 do
    a.[i] <- a.[i] * a.[i]

let A = [| 1; 2; 3; 4; 5 |]

printArray A
square A
printArray A</pre>
```

```
1 2 3 4 5
1 4 9 16 25
```

Listing 9.15: arrayReassign.fsx - Arrays are mutable in spite the missing mutable keyword.

Notice that in spite the missing mutable keyword, the function square still had the *side-effect* of squaring alle entries in A. Arrays only support direct pattern matching, e.g.,

```
let name2String (arr : string array) =
  match arr with
  [| first; last|] -> last + ", " + first
  | _ -> ""
```

```
let listNames (arr :string array array) =
  let mutable str = ""
  for a in arr do
    str <- str + name2String a + "\n"
  str

let A = [|[|"Jon"; "Sporring"|]; [|"Alonzo"; "Church"|]; [|"John"; "McCarthy"
    |]|]
printf "%s" (listNames A)</pre>
```

```
Sporring, Jon
Church, Alonzo
McCarthy, John
```

Listing 9.16: arrayPatternMatching.fsx - Only simple pattern matching is allowed for arrays.

The given example is the first example of a 2-dimensional array, which can be implemented as arrays of arrays and here written as **string array array**. Below further discussion of on 2 and higher dimensional arrays be discussed. Arrays support *slicing*, that is, indexing an array with a range results in a copy of array with values corresponding to the range, e.g.,

· slicing

```
let arr = [|'a' .. 'g'|]
printfn "%A" arr.[0]
printfn "%A" arr.[3]
printfn "%A" arr.[3..]
printfn "%A" arr.[..3]
printfn "%A" arr.[1..3]
printfn "%A" arr.[*]
```

```
'a'
'd'
[|'d'; 'e'; 'f'; 'g'|]
[|'a'; 'b'; 'c'; 'd'|]
[|'b'; 'c'; 'd'|]
[|'a'; 'b'; 'c'; 'd'; 'e'; 'f'; 'g'|]
```

Listing 9.17: arraySlicing.fsx - Examples of array slicing. Compare with Listing 9.8 and Listing 5.27.

As illustrated, the missing start or end index implies from the first or to the last element. Arrays can be converted to lists and sequences by,

```
let arr = [|'a' .. 'c'|]
let lst = Array.toList arr
let sq = Array.toSeq arr
printfn "%A, %A, %A" arr lst sq
```

```
[|'a'; 'b'; 'c'|], ['a'; 'b'; 'c'], seq ['a'; 'b'; 'c']
```

Listing 9.18: arrayConversion.fsx - The Array module contains functions for conversion to lists and sequences.

There are quite a number of built-in procedures for all arrays many which will be discussed in Chapter 14.

Higher dimensional arrays can be created as arrays of arrays (of arrays ...). These are known as *jagged* arrays, since there is no inherent control of that all sub-arrays are of similar size. E.g., the following is a jagged array of increasing width,

 $\cdot$  jagged arrays

```
let arr = [|[|1|]; [|1; 2|]; [|1; 2; 3|]|]

for row in arr do
   for elm in row do
     printf "%A " elm
   printf "\n"
```

```
1
1 2
1 2 3
```

Listing 9.19: arrayJagged.fsx - An array of arrays. When row lengths are of non-equal elements, then it is a Jagged array.

Indexing arrays of arrays is done sequentially, in the sense that in the above example, the number of outer arrays is a.Length, a.[i] is the i'th array, the length of the i'th array is a.[i].Length, and the j'th element of the i'th array is thus a.[i].[j]. Often 2 dimensional rectangular arrays are used, which can be implemented as a jagged array as,

```
let pownArray (arr : int array array) p =
  for i = 1 to arr.Length - 1 do
    for j = 1 to arr.[i].Length - 1 do
        arr.[i].[j] <- pown arr.[i].[j] p

let printArrayOfArrays (arr : int array array) =
  for row in arr do
    for elm in row do
        printf "%3d " elm
        printf "\n"

let A = [|[|1 .. 4|]; [|1 .. 2 .. 7|]; [|1 .. 3 .. 10|]|]
  pownArray A 2
  printArrayOfArrays A</pre>
```

```
1 2 3 4
1 9 25 49
1 16 49 100
```

**Listing 9.20:** arrayJaggedSquare.fsx - A rectangular array.

Notice, the for-in cannot be used in pownArray, e.g., for row in arr do for elm in row do elm <- pown elm p done done since the iterator value \lstinlineelm! is not mutable even though arr is an array. In fact, square arrays of dimensions 2 to 4 are so common that F# has built-in modules for their support. In the following describe Array2D. The workings of Array3D and Array4D are very similar. An example of creating the same 2 dimensional array as above but as an Array2D is,

```
let arr = Array2D.create 3 4 0
for i = 0 to (Array2D.length1 arr) - 1 do
  for j = 0 to (Array2D.length2 arr) - 1 do
    arr.[i,j] <- j * Array2D.length1 arr + i
printfn "%A" arr</pre>
```

```
[[0; 3; 6; 9]
[1; 4; 7; 10]
[2; 5; 8; 11]]
```

**Listing 9.21:** array2D.fsx - Creating a 3 by 4 rectangular arrays of intigers.

Notice that the indexing uses a slightly different notation '[,]' and the length functions are also slightly different. The statement A.Length would return the total number of elements in the array, in this case 12. As can be seen, the printf supports direct printing of the 2 dimensional array. Higher dimensional arrays support slicing, e.g.,

```
let arr = Array2D.create 3 4 0
for i = 0 to (Array2D.length1 arr) - 1 do
    for j = 0 to (Array2D.length2 arr) - 1 do
        arr.[i,j] <- j * Array2D.length1 arr + i
printfn "%A" arr.[2,3]
printfn "%A" arr.[1..,3..]
printfn "%A" arr.[..1,*]
printfn "%A" arr.[1.,*]</pre>
```

```
11

[[10]

[11]]

[[0; 3; 6; 9]

[1; 4; 7; 10]]

[[1; 4; 7; 10]]

[[1; 4; 7; 10]]
```

Listing 9.22: array2DSlicing.fsx - Examples of Array2D slicing. Compare with Listing 9.21.

Note that in almost all cases, slicing produces a sub rectangular 2 dimensional array except for arr . [1,\*], which is an array, as can be seen by the single [. In contrast, A.[1..1,\*] is an Array2D. Note also, that printfn typesets 2 dimensional arrays as [[ ... ]] and not [|[| ... |]|], which can cause confusion with lists of lists. <sup>3</sup>

Array2D and higher have a number of built-in functions that will be discussed in Chapter 14.

### 9.4 Sequences

Sequences are lists, where the elements are build as needed. Examples are 4

```
> #nowarn "40"
- let a = { 1 .. 10 };;

val a : seq<int>
> let b = seq { 1 .. 10 };;

val b : seq<int>
> let c = seq {for i = 1 to 10 do yield i*i done};;

val c : seq<int>
> let rec d =
- seq {
- for i = 0 to 59 do yield (float i)*2.0*3.1415/60.0 done;
- yield! d
- };;

val d : seq<float>
```

 $<sup>^3</sup>$ Array2D.ToString produces [[ ... ]] and not [|[| ... |]|], which can cause confusion.

 $<sup>^4</sup>$ Mono does not support specification Spec-4.0 Section 6.3.11, seq comp-expr, in the form seq 3 or seq 3; 4.

Listing 9.23: fsharpi, Creating sequences by range explicitly stating elements, a range expressions, a computation expression, and an infinite computation expression

Sequences are built using the following subset of the general syntax,

```
range-exp = expr ".." expr [".." expr]
comp-expr =
  "let" pat "=" expr "in" comp-expr
  | "use" pat = expr "in" comp-expr
  | ("yield" | "yield!") expr
  | "if" expr "then" comp-expr ["else" comp-expr]
  | "match" expr "with" comp-rules
  | "try" comp-expr "with" comp-rules
  | "try" comp-expr "finally" expr
  | "while" expr "do" expr ["done"]
  | "for" ident "=" expr "to" expr "do" comp-expr ["done"]
  | "for" pat "in" expr-or-range-expr "do" comp-expr ["done"]
  | comp-expr ";" comp-expr
short-comp-expr = "for" pat "in" (expr | range-expr) "->" expr
comp-or-range-expr = comp-expr| short-comp-expr | range-expr
comp-rule = pat pattern-guardopt "->" comp-expr
comp-rules = comp-rule | comp-rule '|' comp-rules
 | "seq" "{" comp-or-range-expr "}" (* computation expression *)
```

Sequence may be defined using simple range expressions but most often are defined as a small program, that generates values with the yield keyword or yield! keyword. The yield! is called yield bang, and appends a sequence instead of adding a sequence as an element. Thus, seq {3; 5} is not permitted, but seq {yield 3; yield 5} and seq {yield!(seq {yield 3; yield 5})} are, both creating seq <int> = seq [3; 5], i.e., a sequence of integers. Most often computation expressions are used to produced members that are not just ranges, but more complicated expressions of ranges, e.g., c in the example. Sequences may even in principle be infinitely long, e.g., d. Calculating the complete sequence at the point of definition is impossible due to lack of memory, as is accessing all its elements due to lack of time. But infinite sequences are still very useful, e.g., identifier d illustrates the parametrization of a circle, which is an infinite domain, and any index will be converted to the equivalent 60'th degree angle in radians. Fsharp warns against recursive values, as defined in the example, since it will check the soundness of the value at run-time rather than at compile-time. The warning can be removed by adding #nowarn "40" in the script or --nowarn:40 as argument to fsharpi or fsharpc.

Sequences are generalisations of lists and arrays, and functions taking sequences as argument may equally take lists and arrays as argument. Sequences do not have many built-in operators, but a rich collection of functions in the Collections.Seq. E.g.,

```
> let sq = seq { 1 .. 10 };; (* make a sequence *)
val sq : seq<int>
> let itm = Seq.item 0 sq;; (* take firste element *)
val itm : int = 1
> let sbsq = Seq.take 3 sq;; (* make new sequence of first 3 elements *)
val sbsq : seq<int>
```

Listing 9.24: fsharpi, Index a sequence with Seq.item and Seq.take

which as usual index from 0 and will cast an exception, if indexing is out of range for the sequence.

· yield bang

That sequences really are programs rather than values can be seen by the following example,

```
That was 0
2
That was 1
The sequence was evaluated to this point.
3
That was 2
```

Listing 9.25: fsharpi, Sequences elements are first evaluated, when needed.

In the example, we see that the printfn function embedded in the definition is first executed, when the 3rd item is requested.

The only difference between computation expression's programming constructs and the similar regular expressions constructs is that they must return a value with the yield or yield! keywords.<sup>6</sup> The try-keyword constructions will be discussed in Chapter 10, and the use-keyword is a variant of let but used in asynchronous computations, which will not be treated here.

Intinfite sequences is a useful concept in many programs and may be generated in a number of ways. E.g., to generate a repeated sequence, we could use recursive value definition, a computation expression, a recursive function, or the Seq module. Using a recursive value definition,

```
let repeat items =
  let rec ret =
    seq { yield! items
        yield! ret }
  ret

printfn "%A" (repeat [1;2;3])
```

```
/Users/sporring/repositories/fsharpNotes/src/seqInfinteValue2.fsx(4,18):
   warning FS0040: This and other recursive references to the object(s) being defined will be checked for initialization-soundness at runtime through the use of a delayed reference. This is because you are defining one or more recursive objects, rather than recursive functions. This warning may be suppressed by using '#nowarn "40"' or '--nowarn:40'.
seq [1; 2; 3; 1; ...]
```

Listing 9.26: seqInfinteValue2.fsx - Recursive value definitions gives a warning. Compare with Listing 9.27, 9.28, and 9.29.

Fsharp warns against using recursive values, since it will check the soundness of the value at run-time rather than at compile-time. The warning can be removed by adding #nowarn "40" in the script or --nowarn:40 as argument to #sharpi or #sharpc, but warnings are #sages from the designers of # that your program is non-optimal, and you should avoid structures that throw warnings instead of relying on #nowarn and similar constructions. Instead we may create an infinite loop using the #while-do computation expression, as

Advice

```
let repeat items =
  seq { while true do yield! items }
printfn "%A" (repeat [1;2;3])
```

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>5</sup>Mono, missing support for Spec-4.0 Chapter 6, do-in in sequences. E.g., seq let \_ = printfn "hej"in yield 3 is ok, but seq do printfn "hej"in yield 3 not. One could argue, that computation expression is the framework and that it is the seq implementation, which does not provide full access to the framework. but this is confusing, since seq gets special attention in the specification.

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>6</sup>Mono implements if-elif-else, but this is not in the specification.

```
seq [1; 2; 3; 1; ...]
```

Listing 9.27: seqInfinteValue.fsx - Infinite value definition without recursion nor warning. Compare with Listing 9.26, 9.28, and 9.29.

or alternatively define a recursive function,

```
let rec repeat items =
   seq { yield! items
        yield! repeat items }
printfn "%A" (repeat [1;2;3])
```

```
seq [1; 2; 3; 1; ...]
```

Listing 9.28: seqInfinteFunction.fsx - Recursive function definitions gives no a warning. Compare with Listing 9.26, 9.27, and 9.29.

Infinite expressions have built-in support through the Seq module using,

```
let repeat items =
  let get items x = Seq.item (x % (Seq. length items)) items
  Seq.initInfinite (get items)
printfn "%A" (repeat [1;2;3])
```

```
seq [1; 2; 3; 1; ...]
```

Listing 9.29: seqInitInfinite.fsx - Using Seq.initInfinite and a function to generate an infinite sequence. Compare with Listing 9.26, 9.27, and 9.28.

which takes a function as argument. Here we have used currying, i.e., get items is a function that takes on variable and returns a value. The use of the remainder operator makes the example rather contrived, since it might have been simpler to use the get indexing function directly. Sequences are easily converted to and from lists and arrays as,

```
let sq = seq { 1 .. 3 }
let lst = Seq.toList sq (* convert sequence to list *)
let arr = Seq.toArray sq (* convert sequence to array *)
let sqFromArr = seq [| 1 .. 3|] (* convert an array to sequence *)
let sqFromLst = seq [1 .. 3] (* convert a list to sequence *)
printfn "%A, %A, %A, %A, %A" sq lst arr sqFromArr sqFromLst
```

```
seq [1; 2; 3], [1; 2; 3], [|1; 2; 3|], [|1; 2; 3|], [1; 2; 3]
```

Listing 9.30: seqConversion.fsx - Conversion between sequences and lists and arrays using the List module.

There are quite a number of built-in functions for sequences many which will be discussed in Chapter 14. Lists and arrays may be created from sequences through the short-hand notation called *list and array sequence expressions*,

· list sequence expression

which implicitely creates the corresponding expression and return the result as a list or array.

# Bibliography

- [1] Alonzo Church. A set of postulates for the foundation of logic. *Annals of Mathematics*, 33(2):346–366, 1932.
- [2] Programming Research Group. Specifications for the ibm mathematical formula translating system, fortran. Technical report, Applied Science Division, International Business Machines Corporation, 1954.
- [3] John McCarthy. Recursive functions of symbolic expressions and their computation by machine, part i. *Communications of the ACM*, 3(4):184–195, 1960.
- [4] X3: ASA Sectional Committee on Computers and Information Processing. American standard code for information interchange. Technical Report ASA X3.4-1963, American Standards Association (ASA), 1963. http://worldpowersystems.com/projects/codes/X3.4-1963/.
- [5] George Pólya. How to solve it. Princeton University Press, 1945.

# Index

. [], 28	$\sinh, 20$
abs, 20	$\sin, 20$
acos, 20	sprintf, 41
asin, 20	sqrt, 20
atan2, 20	stderr, 41
atan, 20	stdout, 41
bignum, 17	string, 14
byte[], 17	tanh, 20
byte, 17	tan, 20
ceil, 20	uint16, 17
char, 14	uint32, 17
$\cosh$ , 20	uint64, 17
$\cos, 20$	uint8, 17
decimal, 17	unativeint, 17
double, 17	unit, 14
eprintfn, 41	
eprintf, 41	American Standard Code for Information Inter-
exn, 14	change, 106
exp, 20	and, 24
failwithf, 41	anonymous function, 37
float32, 17	ASCII, 106
float, 14	ASCIIbetical order, 27, 106
floor, 20	1 14 100
fprintfn, 41	base, 14, 102
fprintf, 41	Basic Latin block, 107
ignore, 41	Basic Multilingual plane, 107
int16, 17	basic types, 14
int32, 17	binary, 102
int64, 17	binary number, 16
int8, 17	binary operator, 20
int, 14	binary64, 102
it, 14	binding, 10
log10, 20	bit, 16, 102
log, 20	block, 34
$\max$ , $20$	blocks, 107
$\min$ , $20$	boolean and, 23
nativeint, 17	boolean or, 23
obj, 14	branches, 54
pown, 20	byte, 102
printfn, 41	character, 16
printf, 40, 41	
round, 20	class, 19, 28 code point, 16, 107
sbyte, 17	compiled, 8
$\mathtt{sign},20$	computational expressions, 62, 65
single, 17	
	conditions, 54

Cons, 65 Latin-1 Supplement block, 107 console, 8 Latin1, 106 currying, 38 least significant bit, 102 Length, 65 debugging, 9 length, 60 decimal number, 14, 102 lexeme, 12 decimal point, 14, 102 lexical scope, 12, 36 Declarative programming, 5 lexically, 32 digit, 14, 102 lightweight syntax, 30, 32 dot notation, 28 list, 62 double, 102 List.Empty, 65 downcasting, 19 literal, 14 literal type, 17 EBNF, 14, 110 encapsulate code, 35 machine code, 87 encapsulation, 38, 43 member, 19, 60 exception, 26 method, 28 exclusive or, 26 module elements, 98 executable file, 8 modules, 8 expression, 10, 19 most significant bit, 102 expressions, 6 Mutable data, 42 Extended Backus-Naur Form, 14, 110 Extensible Markup Language, 46 namespace, 19 namespace pollution, 94 floating point number, 14 NaN, 104 format string, 10 nested scope, 12, 34 fractional part, 14, 19 newline, 17 function, 12 not, 24 Functional programming, 6, 87 not a number, 104 functions, 6 obfuscation, 62 generic function, 36 object, 28 Object oriented programming, 87 Head, 65 Object-orientered programming, 6 hexadecimal, 102 objects, 6 hexadecimal number, 16 octal, 102 HTML, 48 octal number, 16 Hyper Text Markup Language, 48 operand, 35 operands, 20 IEEE 754 double precision floating-point format, operator, 20, 23, 35 or, 24 Imperativ programming, 87 overflow, 25 Imperative programming, 5 overshadow, 12 implementation file, 8 overshadows, 34 infix notation, 23 infix operator, 19 pattern matching, 55, 64 integer division, 25 precedence, 23 integer number, 14 prefix operator, 20 interactive, 8 Procedural programming, 87 IsEmpty, 65 procedure, 38 Item, 65 production rules, 110 jagged arrays, 68 ragged multidimensional list, 65 range expression, 63 keyword, 10 reals, 102

recursive function, 57 reference cells, 44 remainder, 25 rounding, 19 run-time error, 26

scientific notation, 16 scope, 12, 33 script file, 8 script-fragments, 8 side-effect, 67 side-effects, 38, 44 signature file, 8 slicing, 68 state, 5 statement, 10 statements, 5, 87 states, 87 stopping criterium, 57 string, 10, 16 Structured programming, 6 subnormals, 104

Tail, 65 tail-recursive, 57 terminal symbols, 110 truth table, 24 tuple, 60 type, 10, 14 type casting, 18 type declaration, 10 type inference, 9, 10 type safety, 36

unary operator, 20 underflow, 25 Unicode, 16 unicode general category, 107 Unicode Standard, 107 unit of measure, 93 unit-less, 94 unit-testing, 9 upcasting, 19 UTF-16, 107 UTF-8, 107

variable, 42 verbatim, 18

whitespace, 17 whole part, 14, 19 word, 102

 $\begin{array}{c} {\rm XML},\,46 \\ {\rm xor},\,26 \end{array}$