

# Programming Concepts and Languages

Spring 2024

# Learning Objectives

- By the end of this session, you will be able to:
  - explain the structured types in F#, which are extensively used in functional programming
  - identify some basic types of values (Integers, char, String, bool )
  - write programs using pattern matching
  - develop programs using the different core types
  - develop small programs to create a list of items and access elements of a list
  - develop small F# functions using list functions and list comprehensions
  - develop small F# error handling functions using the “failwith”

# F# Program Structure

- F# program consists of a number of declarations
  - `let` declarations - most commonly used
  - declarations of types, exceptions - coming later
- `let` declarations define names for values
  - `let numberPresent = 23`
- After the = we can define any expression
  - Evaluated to a value and used as the definition for the name
    - `let averageAttRate = 23/20`
- Values can also include functions
  - `let square = fun x -> x * x`
- Difference with other languages
  - functions and non-functions can be defined in the same way

# Numerical Types

- ❖ F# has a number of numerical types:

*Table 2-1. Numerical primitives in F#*

Type	Suffix	.NET Type	Range
byte	uy	System.Byte	0 to 255
sbyte	y	System.SByte	−128 to 127
int16	s	System.Int16	−32,768 to 32,767
uint16	us	System.UInt16	0 to 65,535
int, int32		System.Int32	$-2^{31}$ to $2^{31}-1$
uint32	u	System.UInt32	0 to $2^{32}-1$
int64	L	System.Int64	$-2^{63}$ to $2^{63}-1$
uint64	UL	System.UInt64	0 to $2^{64}-1$
float		System.Double	A double-precision floating point based on the IEEE 64 standard. Represents
float32	f	System.Single	A single-precision floating point based on the IEEE 32 standard. Represents values with approximately 7 significant digits.
decimal	M	System.Decimal	A fixed-precision floating-point type with precisely 28 digits of precision.

# Functions and Operators on Numerical Types

Operator	Description	Example	Result
+	Addition	1 + 2	3
-	Subtraction	1 - 2	-1
*	Multiplication	2 * 3	6
/	Division	8L / 3L	2L
**	Power <sup>a</sup>	2.0 ** 8.0	256.0
%	Modulus	7 % 3	1

<sup>a</sup>Power, the \*\* operator, only works for `float` and `float32` types. To raise the power of an integer value, you must either convert it to a floating-point number first or use the `pown` function.

- Bitwise operators: all integer types
- Type conversion functions: same name as type converted to

```
int 18.2 ⇒ 18
```

```
int 18L ⇒ 18
```

# Characters

- Type `char` for characters
- Syntax:

```
let dkVowels = ['a'; 'e'; 'i'; 'o'; 'u'; 'æ'; 'ø'; 'å'];;
```

- Characters are elements in strings

*Table 2-6. Character escape sequences*

Character	Meaning
\'	Single quote
\"	Double quote
\\	Backslash
\b	Backspace
\n	Newline
\r	Carriage return
\t	Horizontal tab

# Strings

- Strings are defined by enclosing a series of characters in double quotes.
  - can span multiple lines
- uses indexer to access a character like arrays
  - But are immutable and can't be modified

```
> let classId = "IT-PCL1-S24";;
```

```
> classId.Length;;
```

```
> classId.[7] ;;
```

# Booleans

- Type `bool` for the two booleans values `true`, `false`
- Boolean operators and functions:

Operator	Description	Example	Result
<code>&amp;&amp;</code>	And	<code>true &amp;&amp; false</code>	<code>false</code>
<code>  </code>	Or	<code>true    false</code>	<code>true</code>
<code>not</code>	Not	<code>not false</code>	<code>true</code>

- Relational operator returning a boolean value:

Operator	Description	Example	Result
<code>&lt;</code>	Less than	<code>1 &lt; 2</code>	<code>True</code>
<code>&lt;=</code>	Less than or equal to	<code>4.0 &lt;= 4.0</code>	<code>True</code>
<code>&gt;</code>	Greater than	<code>1.4e3 &gt; 1.0e2</code>	<code>True</code>
<code>&gt;=</code>	Greater than or equal to	<code>0I &gt;= 2I</code>	<code>False</code>
<code>=</code>	Equal to	<code>"abc" = "abc"</code>	<code>True</code>
<code>&lt;&gt;</code>	Not equal to	<code>'a' &lt;&gt; 'b'</code>	<code>True</code>

- Can `compare` elements from any “comparable” type
  - returns `-1`, `0`, or `1` depending on whether the first parameter is less than, equal to, or greater than the second.



# Conditional

- F# has a conditional if-then-else expression:

`if true then x else y` gives **x**

`if false then x else y` gives **y**

- we can write expressions like

`if x > 0 then x else -x`

- However, the two branches must have the same type
- This means, `if x > 0 then 17 else 'a'` is illegal

# Functions I

- functions take some arguments and return a result
- you can define your own functions or use predefined functions
- A little unusual syntax: no parentheses around arguments

```
add10 20
```

```
addXY 10 20
```

- The space between function and argument can be seen as a special operator:
  - **function application**
- Function application binds harder than any other operator
- i.e.:
  - $f\ x + y$  means  $(f\ x) + y$ , not  $f\ (x + y)$
- Forgetting this is one of the common mistake by beginners

# Functions II

- Having functions as a kind of values is powerful
  - this is one of the defining features of functional programming.

- function definitions are can be abbreviated:

```
let square x = x * x           // abbreviation
```

```
let square = fun x -> x * x // without the abbreviation
```

- To call (or “apply”) a function, just put it in front of an expression:

```
let pclSqrA = square 5
```

```
let pclSqrB = square (square (2+5))
```

```
let pclSqrC = (fun x -> x * x) 5
```

**pc1SqrC = pc1SqrA = 25**

- N/B: parentheses are not needed in function definitions/values nor in applications (another difference with many languages).
  - Instead they are used only when needed to group things together.

# Type Inference

- Every variable and expression in F# must have a type assigned to it.
  - The compiler **infers** these types automatically and reports inconsistent types as errors.
  - Inference means that you usually do not need to declare the types for variables.
  - However, one could add types to help the inference, debugging, etc.:
    - `let add (x : float) y = x + y`
- Functions are given types like: `float -> float -> float`
  - N/B: functions are just another kind of value.

# Pattern Matching I

- F# has a **case construct**

```
match expr with  
    | pattern1 -> expr1  
    | pattern2 -> expr2  
    . . .
```

- Every case has a pattern for the argument
- Cases are checked in order, the first that matches the argument is selected
- types like numerical types, have constants and variables as possible patterns

# Pattern Matching II

- Pattern matching can also be used with booleans, numbers, and other types.
- Note: `match ... with` is just another expression, it is evaluated and returns a result
- useful with structured data, where it can be used to conveniently pick out parts of data structures.

# Exercise

- ❖ Convert the previous **factorial function** to use pattern matching

```
let rec factorial n =  
  if n < 1 then 1  
  else n * factorial (n - 1)
```

# Core Types

*Table 2-9. Core types in F#*

Signature	Name	Description	Example
<code>unit</code>	Unit	The unit value	<code>()</code>
<code>int, float</code>	Concrete type	A concrete type	<code>42, 3.14</code>
<code>'a, 'b</code>	Generic type	A generic (free) type	
<code>'a -&gt; 'b</code>	Function type	A function returning a value	<code>fun x -&gt; x + 1</code>
<code>'a * 'b</code>	Tuple type	An ordered grouping of values	<code>("eggs", "ham")</code>
<code>'a list</code>	List type	A list of values	<code>[ 1; 2; 3], [1 .. 3]</code>
<code>'a option</code>	Option type	An optional value	<code>Some(3), None</code>



# Tuple : System.Tuple<\_> type

- Tuples are similar to records, or objects
- A tuple is like a container for data with a fixed number of slots
- Example:

```
('a', 23, 3.142)
```

- This is a three-tuple whose first component is a character, the second an integer, and the third a floating-point number
- It has the tuple type `char * int * float`
- Tuples can contain any type of data, for instance:

```
(add, (23, 'd')) : (int -> int -> int) * (int * char)
```

- Thus, there are really infinitely many tuple types

# Tuple : Construction & Deconstruction/pattern

```
// Construction
let student1 = (111401, "Anders")

// Triple tuple
let student2 = (111402, "Catalin", "IoT")

// Deconstruction - using fst, snd or pattern
let studentId = fst student1
let studentName = snd student1

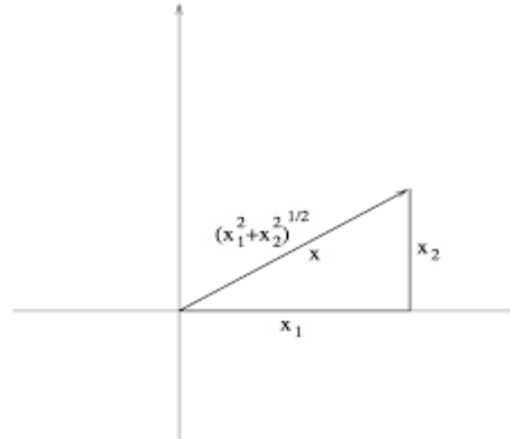
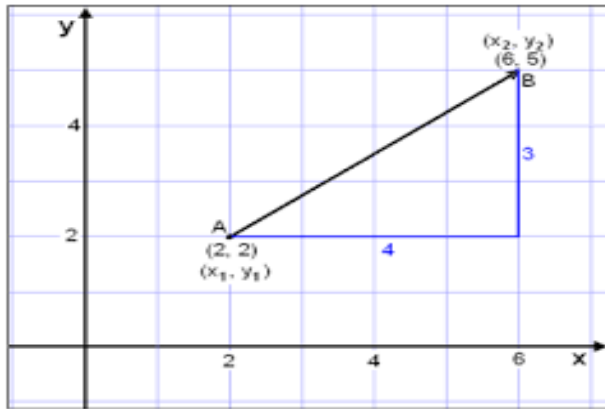
let (x', y') = student1
```

# Use of Tuples

- To simply add 2 numbers

```
tupledAdd(x, y) = x + y
```

- Use tuples with two floats to represent 2D-vectors



- Define functions vadd, vsub, vlen to add, subtract, and compute the length of vectors:

```
vecAdd : (float * float) -> (float * float) -> (float * float)
vecSub : (float * float) -> (float * float) -> (float * float)
vecLen : (float * float) -> float
```

# Lists

- Lists are:
  - very important data structures in functional programming
  - sequences of elements
- Lists can be arbitrarily long, but **all elements must be of the same type**
- If `a` is a type, then a list is the type “list of `a`”
- Example: `int list, char list, (int list) list, (float -> int) list`
- A list can contain elements of **any** type (as long as all have the same type)

# Constructing Lists I

- Lists are constructed from:
  - the `empty list` : `[]`
  - the “`cons`” operator, which puts an element in front of a list: `::`
- Example: `1 :: (2 :: (3 :: []))`
- `::` and `[]` are called constructors: they “`construct`” data structures
- N/B: This is different with constructors in object-oriented languages

# Constructing Lists II

- `1 :: 2 :: 3 :: []` is same as `1 :: (2 :: (3 :: []))`
  - i.e.: “`::`” is right-associative)
- `[1;2;3]` is another shorthand for `1 :: (2 :: (3 :: []))`
- The first element of a nonempty list is the head:
- `List.head [1;2;3] ⇒ 1`
- `List.head` is a function from the `List` module, thus the prefix `List.`
- The list of the remaining elements is the tail
- `List.tail [1;2;3] ⇒ [2;3]`

# List Ranges

- ▶ Can declare a list of ordered numeric values
- ▶ The first expression specifies the lower bound of the range
- ▶ The second specifies the upper bound

```
x = [1 .. 10]: int list
```

- ▶ With optional step value, the result becomes a list of values in the range between two numbers separated by the stepping value

```
tens = [0 .. 10 .. 50] : int list
```

# Some List Functions

- F# has many builtin functions on lists:
- `List.length ls`
  - computes the length of the list `ls`
  - Example: `List.length ['a'; 'b'; 'c'] ⇒ 3`
- `List.sum ls`,
  - sums all the numbers in `ls`
  - Example: `List.sum [1;2;3] ⇒ 6`
- Let's program them as an exercise



# Exercises - List functions

## Exercises 2.1.1 - 2.2.4

# N/B

- Define an F# function to duplicate the element of a list

- Example:

```
pclDupliLstComp ["F#";"Python"] gives ["F#"; "F#"; "Python"; "Python"]
```

- Define an F# function to replicate the elements of a list given number of times

- Example:

```
pclDupliLstComp2 ['A'; 'C'; 'T'; 'G'] 3;; gives  
['A'; 'A'; 'A'; 'C'; 'C'; 'C'; 'T'; 'T'; 'T'; 'G'; 'G'; 'G']
```



# List Functions

- F# has many built-in functions on lists:
- `List.length ls`
  - computes the length of the list `ls`
  - Example: `List.length ['a';'b';'c'] ⇒ 3`
- `List.sum ls`,
  - sums all the numbers in `ls`
  - Example: `List.sum [1;2;3] ⇒ 6`

# pclSum - Closer look

- `pclSum [1;2;3] = sum 1::(2::(3::[]))`  
 $\Rightarrow 1 + (2 + (3 + 0)) \Rightarrow 6$
- `list 1::(2::(3::[]))` and `sum` expression for  
`1 + (2 + (3 + 0))`  
are similar in their tree structure
- `pclSum` basically replaces `::` with `+` and then calculates the result

# List Comprehensions: [ ] (aka generators)

- an elegant way of defining lists using other lists
- made up of elements returned via **yield**

```
let numbersNear x =  
    [  
        yield x - 1  
        yield x  
        yield x + 1  
    ]
```



`numbersNear 3 ? ⇒ [2; 3; 4]`

- List comprehension can contain F# code including function declarations
- First appearance of **for loops**

# List Comprehensions II

- List comprehensions are an elegant way of defining lists using other lists.
- **for** is used to for generators, which enumerate the elements of another list
- **if** allows filtering based on a Boolean
- **yield** adds an element to the list being created.

```
let x1 =  
  [ let negate x = -x  
    for i in 1 .. 10 do  
      if i % 2 = 0 then  
        yield negate i  
      else  
        yield i ]
```

**x1** ⇒ [1; -2; 3; -4; 5; -6; 7; -8; 9; -10]

# List Comprehensions III

- `->` can be used with `for ... in` as an abbreviation of `do yield`

```
// Generate the first ten multiples of a number  
multiplesOf x = [ for i in 1 .. 10 do yield x * i ]
```

```
// Simplified list comprehension  
multiplesOf2 x = [ for i in 1 .. 10 -> x * i ]
```

# List Comprehensions IV

- **for** allows use of patterns:

```
pclSqrns n = [ for i in 1 .. n -> (i, i*i) ]
```

```
pclSqrnsAdd n = [ for (i,psq) in pclSqrns n -> i + psq ]
```

```
pclSqrnsAdd 4 ⇒ [2; 6; 12; 20]
```

- **yield!** (yield Bang) puts a whole list of values into the output list.

```
let yb =  
  [for a in 1 .. 5 do  
    match a with  
    | 3 -> yield! ["P"; "C"; "L"]  
    | _ -> yield a.ToString()]
```

```
yb ⇒ ["1"; "2"; "P"; "C"; "L"; "4"; "5"]
```



# yield vs yield!

- **yield** allows use of patterns:

```
listWithYield =  
  [ for i in 0 .. 10 .. 20 do  
    yield [ i .. 1 .. i+9 ] ]
```

- **yield!** (yield bang) puts a whole list (including sub lists) of values into the output list.

```
listWithYieldBang =  
  [ for i in 0 .. 10 .. 20 do  
    yield! [ i .. 1 .. i+9 ] ]
```

# List module functions

Function and type	Description
<code>List.exists</code> <code>('a -&gt; bool) -&gt; 'a list -&gt; bool</code>	Returns whether or not an element in the list satisfies the search function.
<code>List.rev</code> <code>'a list -&gt; 'a list</code>	Reverses the elements in a list.
<code>List.tryfind</code> <code>('a -&gt; bool) -&gt; 'a list -&gt; 'a option</code>	Returns <code>Some(x)</code> where <code>x</code> is the first element for which the given function returns <code>true</code> . Otherwise returns <code>None</code> . (Some and None are covered shortly.)
<code>List.zip</code> <code>'a list -&gt; 'b list -&gt; ('a * 'b) list</code>	Given two lists with the same length, returns a joined list of tuples.
<code>List.filter</code> <code>('a -&gt; bool) -&gt; 'a list -&gt; 'a list</code>	Returns a list with only the elements for which the given function returned <code>true</code> .
<code>List.partition</code> <code>('a -&gt; bool) -&gt; 'a list -&gt; ('a list * 'a list)</code>	Given a predicate function and a list, returns two new lists; the first where the function returned <code>true</code> , the second where the function returned <code>false</code> .

# Errors and Non-termination

- Now what about `factorial (-1)`?

`factorial (-1) ⇒ (-1) * factorial (-2) ⇒ (-1) * (-2) * factorial (-3) ⇒ ...`

- Infinite recursion!** Will never terminate.
- For computations that never return anything, we use the notation “ $\perp$ ” for the “resulting value”
- Thus, `factorial(-1) =  $\perp$`
- Remember factorial is really just defined for natural numbers, not for negative numbers
- It’s good practice to have controlled error handling of out-of-range arguments

# F# failwith Function

- F# has an `failwith` function, which when executed prints a string and stops the execution
- Example:  

```
failwith "You cannot input negative argument to  
this function"
```
- (Strings in F# are written within quotes, like "Please put me in quotes")
- Add error handling to the factorial function.