

# CS 320 : Functional Programming in Ocaml

based on slides by

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# This class – CS 320

We will study different components of **programming languages** (PL's), such as:

- *design* issues of PL's and features they support (not all PL's are the same – why? – some are better for some purposes, no single PL is best for all tasks) <https://powcoder.com>  
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- *formal reasoning* about programmable functions
- how PL's are *compiled*
- *runtime environment* of compiled programs
- *functional programming* as a new paradigm

# What is a Functional Language

A functional language:

- defines programs in a way similar to the way we define *mathematical functions*,
- avoids the use of *mutable states* (states that can change) in the execution of a program.

In *pure* functional languages, all information pertaining to the computation is *transparent*: there is “no hidden information”, “no side effects”, “what you code/see is all what you get”.

# Why study functional programming?

1. Learning a different style of programming teach you that programming transcends programming in a language  
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2. Functional languages predict the future
3. Functional languages are more and more used in industry  
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4. Functional languages help writing correct code



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A good functional language part of the ML family.

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- Small core language,
- Supports first-class higher order functions,
- Lexically scoped
- Statically strongly typed
- Type inference
- It has a good community: [ocaml.org](http://ocaml.org)

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# Learning Goals for today

- Basic usage of Ocaml
  - Expressions vs values
  - Type checking topics
  - Type Safety
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# A First OCaml Program

hello.ml:

```
print_string "Hello COS 326!!\n";;
```

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# A First OCaml Program

hello.ml:

```
print_string "Hello COS 326!!\n"
```

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its string argument  
enclosed in "..."

a function

no parens. normally call a function f like this:

f arg

(parens are used for grouping, precedence  
only when necessary)

a program  
can be nothing  
more than  
just a single  
expression  
(but that is  
uncommon)

# A First OCaml Program

hello.ml:

```
print_string "Hello COS 326!!\n"
```

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compiling and running hello.ml:

```
$ ocamlbuild hello.d.byte  
$ ./hello.d.byte  
Hello COS 326!!  
$
```

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.d for debugging  
(other choices .p for profiled; or none)

.byte for interpreted bytecode  
(other choices .native for machine code)

# A First OCaml Program

hello.ml:

```
print_string "Hello COS 326!!\n"
```

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interpreting and playing with hello.ml:

```
$ ocaml
```

```
Objective Caml Version 3.12.0
```

```
#
```

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# A First OCaml Program

hello.ml:

```
print_string "Hello COS 326!!\n"
```

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interpreting and playing with hello.ml:

```
$ ocaml
      Objective Caml Version 3.12.0
# 3 + 1;;
- : int = 4
#
```

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# A First OCaml Program

hello.ml:

```
print_string "Hello COS 326!!\n"
```

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interpreting and playing with hello.ml:

```
$ ocaml
      Objective Caml Version 3.12.0
# 3 + 1;;
- : int = 4
# #use "hello.ml";;
hello cos326!!
- : unit = ()
#
```

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# A First OCaml Program

hello.ml:

```
print_string "Hello COS 326!!\n"
```

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interpreting and playing with hello.ml:

```
$ ocaml
      Objective Caml Version 3.12.0
# 3 + 1;;
- : int = 4
# #use "hello.ml";;
hello cos326!!
- : unit = ()
# #quit;;
$
```

# Functions: so confusing!

- What is the difference between calling a function in these two ways:  
`f arg1 arg2`                      `f (arg1, arg2)`

The type of the first is:

`type_of_arg1 -> type_of_arg2 -> return_type_of_f`

The type of the second is:

`type_of_arg1 * type_of_arg2 -> return_type_of_f`

For now just consider both as a way to call a function.  
is going on under the hood

Which one you use depends on how you **define your function!**

Challenge question: How  
can both be true?

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- Functions only take one argument (wait ... but what is happening above?!?)
- Functions always return a value  
No return statement  
Body of a function is an **Expression** NOT a **sequence of statements**

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How would you write a program  
summing the first n numbers?  
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# A Second OCaml Program

sumTo8.ml:

a comment  
(\* ... \*)

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

let _ =
  print_int (sumTo 8);
  print_newline()
```

# A Second OCaml Program

the name of the function being defined

sumTo8.ml:

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

let _ =
  print_int (sumTo 8);
  print_newline();
```

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the keyword “let” begins a definition; keyword “rec” indicates recursion

# A Second OCaml Program

sumTo8.ml:

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

let _ =
  print_int (sumTo 8);
  print_newline();
```

result type int

argument  
named n  
with type int

# A Second OCaml Program

deconstruct the value  $n$   
using pattern matching

sumTo8.ml:

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

let _ =
  print_int (sumTo 8);
  print_newline()
```

data to be  
deconstructed  
appears  
between  
key words  
“match” and  
“with”

# A Second OCaml Program

vertical bar "|" separates the alternative patterns

sumTo8.ml:

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

let _ =
  print_int (sumTo 8);
  print_newline()

—
```

deconstructed data matches one of 2 cases:

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

# A Second OCaml Program

Each branch of the match statement constructs a result

sumTo8.ml:

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

let _ =
  print_int (sumTo 8);
  print_newline()
```

construct  
the result 0

construct  
a result  
using a  
recursive  
call to sumTo

# A Second OCaml Program

sumTo8.ml:

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

let _ =
  print_int (sumTo 8);
  print_newline()
```

print the  
result of  
calling  
sumTo on 8

print a  
new line

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Expressions, Values, Simple Types

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# Terminology: Expressions, Values, Types

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

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# Some simple types, values, expressions

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

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

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

# Not every expression has a value

## Expression:

<code>42 * (13 + 1)</code>	<b>evaluates to</b>	<code>588</code>
<code>(3.14 +. 12.0) *. 10e6</code>	$\mapsto$	<code>151400000.</code>
<code>int_of_char 'a'</code>	$\mapsto$	<code>97</code>
<code>"moo" ^ "cow"</code>	$\mapsto$	<code>"mooocow"</code>
<code>if true then 3 else 4</code>	$\mapsto$	<code>3</code>
<code>print_int 3</code>	$\mapsto$	<code>()</code>

`1 + "hello"` **does not evaluate!**

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# Core Expression Syntax

The simplest OCaml expressions *e* are:

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

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# A note on parentheses

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

`f (x , y , z)`

`sum (3 , 4 , 5)`

Both are valid in OCaml, but different

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

`f x y z`

`sum 3 4 5`

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

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`f x y z`

`f x (y z)`

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

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

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Type Checking Basis

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# Type Checking

- Every value has a type and so does every expression
- We write  $(e : t)$  to say that expression  $e$  has type  $t$ . eg:

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$2 : \text{int}$

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

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$2 + 2 : \text{int}$

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



# Type Checking Rules

- You can always start up the OCaml interpreter to find out a type of a simple expression:

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

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# Type Checking Rules

- You can always start up the OCaml interpreter to find out a type of a simple expression:

```
$ ocaml  
Objective Caml Version 3.12.0  
# 3 + 1;
```

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# Type Checking Rules

- You can always start up the OCaml interpreter to find out a type of a simple expression:

```
$ ocaml  
Objective Caml Version 3.12.0  
# 3 + 1;  
- : int = 4  
#
```

press  
return  
and you  
find out  
the type  
and the  
value

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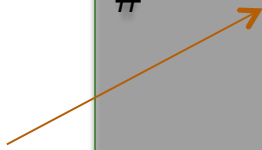
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# Type Checking Rules

- You can always start up the OCaml interpreter to find out a type of a simple expression:

```
$ ocaml
Objective Caml Version 3.12.0
# 3 + 1;;
- : int = 4
# "hello " ^ "world" ;;
- : string = "hello world"
#
```

press  
return  
and you  
find out  
the type  
and the  
value



# Type Checking Rules

- You can always start up the OCaml interpreter to find out a type of a simple expression:

```
$ ocaml
Objective Caml Version 3.12.0
# 3 + 1;;
- : int = 4
# "hello " ^ "world" ;;
- : string = "hello world"
# #quit;;
$
```

# Type Checking Rules

- There are a set of **simple rules** that govern type checking
  - programs that do not follow the rules will not type check and O'Caml will refuse to compile them for you (the nerve!)
  - at first you may find this to be a pain ...

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- But types are a great thing:
  - they *help us think* about how to construct our programs
  - they help us *find stupid programming errors*
  - they help us track down compatibility errors quickly when we edit and *maintain our code*
  - they allow us to *enforce powerful invariants* about our data structures

# Type Checking Rules

- Example rules:

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

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

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Suppose we have an expression of the shape:

$e1 + e2$

How can we check if it has the type `int`?

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# Type Checking Rules

- Example rules:

(1)  $0 : \text{int}$  (and similarly for any other integer constant  $n$ )

(2)  $"abc" : \text{string}$  (and similarly for any other string constant "...")

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(3) if  $e1 : \text{int}$  and  $e2 : \text{int}$  then  $e1 + e2 : \text{int}$  (4) if  $e1 : \text{int}$  and  $e2 : \text{int}$  then  $e1 * e2 : \text{int}$

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Suppose we have an expression of the shape:

$e1 \wedge e2$   
How can we check if it has the type `string`?

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# Type Checking Rules

- Example rules:

(1)  $0 : \text{int}$  (and similarly for any other integer constant  $n$ )

(2)  $"abc" : \text{string}$  (and similarly for any other string constant "...")

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(3) if  $e1 : \text{int}$  and  $e2 : \text{int}$  then  $e1 + e2 : \text{int}$  (4) if  $e1 : \text{int}$  and  $e2 : \text{int}$  then  $e1 * e2 : \text{int}$

(5) if  $e1 : \text{string}$  and  $e2 : \text{string}$  then  $e1 \wedge e2 : \text{string}$  (6) if  $e : \text{int}$  then  $\text{string\_of\_int } e : \text{string}$

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# Type Checking Rules

- Example rules:

(1)  $0 : \text{int}$  (and similarly for any other integer constant  $n$ )

(2)  $"\text{abc}" : \text{string}$  (and similarly for any other string constant "...")

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(3) if  $e1 : \text{int}$  and  $e2 : \text{int}$  then  $e1 + e2 : \text{int}$  (4) if  $e1 : \text{int}$  and  $e2 : \text{int}$  then  $e1 * e2 : \text{int}$

(5) if  $e1 : \text{string}$  and  $e2 : \text{string}$  then  $e1 \wedge e2 : \text{string}$  (6) if  $e : \text{int}$  then  $\text{string\_of\_int } e : \text{string}$

- Using the rules:

$2 : \text{int}$  and  $3 : \text{int}$ . (By rule 1)

# Type Checking Rules

- Example rules:

(1)  $0 : \text{int}$  (and similarly for any other integer constant  $n$ )

(2)  $"\text{abc}" : \text{string}$  (and similarly for any other string constant "...")

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(3) if  $e1 : \text{int}$  and  $e2 : \text{int}$  then  $e1 + e2 : \text{int}$  (4) if  $e1 : \text{int}$  and  $e2 : \text{int}$  then  $e1 * e2 : \text{int}$

(5) if  $e1 : \text{string}$  and  $e2 : \text{string}$  then  $e1 \wedge e2 : \text{string}$  (6) if  $e : \text{int}$  then  $\text{string\_of\_int } e : \text{string}$

- Using the rules:

$2 : \text{int}$  and  $3 : \text{int}$ . (By rule 1)

Therefore,  $(2 + 3) : \text{int}$  (By rule 3)

# Type Checking Rules

- Example rules:

(1)  $0 : \text{int}$  (and similarly for any other integer constant  $n$ )

(2)  $"\text{abc}" : \text{string}$  (and similarly for any other string constant "...")

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(3) if  $e1 : \text{int}$  and  $e2 : \text{int}$  then  $e1 + e2 : \text{int}$  (4) if  $e1 : \text{int}$  and  $e2 : \text{int}$  then  $e1 * e2 : \text{int}$

(5) if  $e1 : \text{string}$  and  $e2 : \text{string}$  then  $e1 \wedge e2 : \text{string}$  (6) if  $e : \text{int}$  then  $\text{string\_of\_int } e : \text{string}$

- Using the rules:

$2 : \text{int}$  and  $3 : \text{int}$ . (By rule 1)

Therefore,  $(2 + 3) : \text{int}$  (By rule 3)

$5 : \text{int}$  (By rule 1)

# Type Checking Rules

- Example rules:

(1)  $0 : \text{int}$  (and similarly for any other integer constant  $n$ )

(2)  $"\text{abc}" : \text{string}$  (and similarly for any other string constant  $s$ )

(3) if  $e1 : \text{int}$  and  $e2 : \text{int}$   
then  $e1 + e2 : \text{int}$

(5) if  $e1 : \text{string}$  and  $e2 : \text{string}$   
then  $e1 \wedge e2 : \text{string}$

- Using the rules:

$2 : \text{int}$  and  $3 : \text{int}$ . (By rule 1)

Therefore,  $(2 + 3) : \text{int}$  (By rule 3)

$5 : \text{int}$  (By rule 1)

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

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FYI: This is a **formal proof**  
that the expression is well-  
typed!

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string\_or\_int e : string