

Functional Programming

<http://cl-informatik.uibk.ac.at/teaching/ss07/fp/>

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Basic types

```
unit # ();;  
  - : unit = ()  
  
booleans # not true;;  
  - : bool = false  
# true || false;;  
  - : bool = true  
# true && false;;  
  - : bool = false
```

Basic types

```
chars # 'x';;  
- : char = 'x'  
# '\065';;  
- : char = 'A'  
  
strings # "hello";;  
- : string = "hello"  
# "\065\n";;  
- : string = "A\n"
```

Basic types

```
integers # 1+1;;  
- : int = 2  
# 2 * 4;;  
- : int = 8  
float # 2.0 +. 3.0 ;;  
- : float = 5.  
# 2.0 *. 3.0 ;;  
- : float = 6.
```

Basic types

```
tuples # (1,2);;  
- : int * int = (1, 2)  
# 1,2;;  
- : int * int = (1, 2)  
# (1,2,3)=(1,(2,3));;  
This expression has type int * (int * int)  
but is here used with type int * int * int  
# ('x',"x",(2.5,3),());;  
- : char * string * (float * int) * unit  
    = ('x', "x", (2.5, 3), ())
```

Overloading

```
impossible # (+) ;;  
- : int -> int -> int = <fun>  
# ( * ) (* remember comments *);;  
- : int -> int -> int = <fun>  
# (+.);;  
- : float -> float -> float = <fun>  
# ( *. );;  
- : float -> float -> float = <fun>
```

```
faked # (<);;  
- : 'a -> 'a -> bool = <fun>
```

Same for the other comparisons: <=, !=, ==, =, >=, >

Problem with overloading

- Not every data type supports $+$, $*$, \dots .
- The usual rule for overloading says:

given the argument types,
the result type must be unique

That is enough for **type checking**.

- But not for **type inference**. For example,

```
let double x = x + x;;
```

If $+$ were overloaded then what is the type double?

Faking of overloading

- Comparison is defined for every data type
- No problem with type inference
- The compiler inserts the correct code for each data type

Equality

```
pointer # "x" == "x" ;;  
- : bool = false  
# "x" != "x";;  
- : bool = true  
structural # "x" = "x" ;;  
- : bool = true  
# "x" <> "x";;  
- : bool = false
```

Equality

```
lists # [] == [] ;;  
      - : bool = true  
      # [] = [] ;;  
      - : bool = true  
      # [1] == [1] ;;  
      - : bool = false  
      # [1] = [1] ;;  
      - : bool = true
```

Printf

```
# open Printf;;  
# printf;;  
- : ('a, out_channel, unit) format -> 'a = <fun>  
# printf "x=%d\n";;  
- : int -> unit = <fun>  
# printf "x=%d\n" 3;;  
x=3  
- : unit = ()  
# printf "%s%c%f";;  
- : string -> char -> float -> unit = <fun>
```

Please note that the compiler translates strings to formats

A list data type in C

```
typedef struct cons* list_t;
struct cons {
    void* elem;
    list_t next;
};
```

Length with a loop in C

```
int length(list_t list){
    int len=0;
    while(list!=NULL){
        list=list->next;
        len++;
    }
    return len;
}
```

Length with recursion in C

```
int length(list_t list){
    if(list!=NULL){
        return 1+length(list->next);
    } else {
        return 0;
    }
}
```

List data types in OCaml

- The pre-defined type 'a list' ([1;2], 1::2::[], etc.)
- Your own list type:

```
type 'a mylist = Nil | Cons of 'a * 'a mylist;;
```

Why the explicit Nil?

It solves a problem in C/Java:

- Our C data type used null as empty list.
- The `get(key)` method of `java.util.Map` returns
*the value to which this map maps the specified key,
or null if the map contains no mapping for this key.*
- These are conflicting uses of null:
you can never map an object to an empty list

Solutions in OCaml

empty list Nil

map.get the pre-defined

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

allows

```
get : ('a,'b) hashtable -> 'a -> 'b option
```

get map key returns Some e if key maps to e and None the map contains no mapping for this key.

Length with recursion OCaml

```
let rec length = function
  | Nil -> 0
  | Cons(_,xs) -> 1+(length xs)
;;

length(Cons(1,Cons(3,Cons(5,Nil))))
= 1+(length(Cons(3,Cons(5,Nil))))
= 1+(1+(length(Cons(5,Nil))))
= 1+(1+(1+(length(Nil))))
= 1+(1+(1+0)) = ... = 3
```

- builds an expression during evaluation
- this expression has to be stored (on the stack)

Length with tail recursion OCaml

```
let rec len n x = match x with
  | Nil -> n
  | Cons(_,xs) -> len (n+1) xs
;;
let length x = len 0 x;;
```

Length with tail recursion OCaml

```
length(Cons(1,Cons(3,Cons(5,Nil))))  
= len 0 (Cons(1,Cons(3,Cons(5,Nil))))  
= len 1 (Cons(3,Cons(5,Nil)))  
= len 2 (Cons(5,Nil))  
= len 3 (Nil)  
= 3
```

- does not build an expression during evaluation
- easy to avoid memory use in compiler

Optimization

It's not nice that `len` is visible, so we make `len` local:

```
let length x =  
  let rec len n x = match x with  
    | Nil -> n  
    | Cons(_,xs) -> len (n+1) xs  
  in len 0 x  
;;
```

Two functions

Consider

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

- let f(x,y)=x+y is short for
let f p = match p with (x,y) -> x+y

Two functions

- Different syntax, also for calls:

```
# f(1,2);;
```

```
- : int = 3
```

```
# g 1 2;;
```

```
- : int = 3
```

- Only for g, we have

```
# g 1;;
```

```
- : int -> int = <fun>
```

Two functions

- Different syntax, also for calls:

```
# f(1,2);;  
- : int = 3  
# g 1 2;;  
- : int = 3
```

- ```
let curry f = fun x y -> f(x,y);;
val curry : ('a * 'b -> 'c) -> 'a -> 'b -> 'c = <fun>
let uncurry f = fun (x,y) -> f x y ;;
val uncurry : ('a -> 'b -> 'c) -> 'a * 'b -> 'c = <fun>
```



## Head and tail of a non-empty list.

We can define the first element of a list as:

```
let hd(Cons(a,_)) = a;;
...
hd(Cons(1,Cons(3,Cons(5,Nil))));;
- : int = 1
```

## Head and tail of a non-empty list.

However,

```
let hd(Cons(a,_)) = a;;
```

Warning P: this pattern-matching is not exhaustive.

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

```
Nil
```

```
val hd : 'a mylist -> 'a = <fun>
```

```
hd(Nil);;
```

```
Exception: Match_failure ("", 15, -88).
```

## Head and tail of a non-empty list.

So, we write

```
let hd = function
 | Cons(a,_) -> a
 | Nil -> failwith "hd must be called on non-empty list"
;;

hd(Cons(1,Cons(3,Cons(5,Nil))));;
- : int = 1
hd(Nil);;
Exception: Failure "hd must be called on non-empty list".
```

## Head and tail of a non-empty list.

Similarly

```
let tl = function
 | Cons(_,x) -> x
 | Nil -> failwith "tl must be called on non-empty list"
;;
```

# Assignment in OCaml

- Does not work on let (rec) defined variables.
- Works on references:

```
ref;;
```

```
- : 'a -> 'a ref = <fun>
```

```
(:=);;
```

```
- : 'a ref -> 'a -> unit = <fun>
```

```
(!);;
```

```
- : 'a ref -> 'a = <fun>
```

# Example

```
let x=ref 2;;
val x : int ref = {contents = 2}
!x;;
- : int = 2
x:=3;;
- : unit = ()
x;;
- : int ref = {contents = 3}
```

# Length with a loop in OCaml

```
let length x =
 let xs = ref x in
 let len = ref 0 in
 (while !xs != Nil do
 len := !len+1;
 xs := tl(!xs)
 done;
 !len
)
;;
```

## More examples

- ```
let rec filter p x = match x with
  | [] -> []
  | a::x when p a -> a::(filter p x)
  | a::x -> filter p x
;;
```
- ```
let rec split p x = match x with
 | [] -> ([],[])
 | a::x -> let (xs,ys)=split p x in
 if p a then (a::xs,ys) else (xs,a::ys)
;;
```



## More examples

- ```
let rec concat = function  
  | [] -> []  
  | a::x -> a@(concat x)  
;;
```
- ```
let concat = fold_left (@) [];;
```
- ```
let concat = fold_right (@) [];;
```

Binary Trees

- A **labeled binary tree** is a tree, whose nodes have either two children and a label or no children and no label.
- In OCaml a tree labeled with elements from 'a is defined as

```
type 'a tree = Leaf | Node of 'a * 'a tree * 'a tree
```
- ```
Leaf;;
- : 'a tree = Leaf
Node(1,Leaf,Leaf);;
- : int tree = Node (1, Leaf, Leaf)
```

# Examples

```
let rec size = function
 | Leaf -> 0
 | Node(a,t1,t2) -> 1+size(t1)+size(t2)
;;
```

```
let rec depth = function
 | Leaf -> 0
 | Node(a,t1,t2) -> 1 + max (depth t1) (depth t2)
;;
```

# Examples

```
let rec map f = function
 | Leaf ->
 | Node(a,t1,t2) ->
;;
```

```
val map : ('a -> 'b) -> 'a tree -> 'b tree = <fun>
map even (Node(1,Node(1,Leaf,Leaf),Leaf));;
- : bool tree = Node (false, Node (false, Leaf, Leaf), Leaf)
map ((+)1) (Node(1,Node(1,Leaf,Leaf),Leaf));;
- : int tree = Node (2, Node (2, Leaf, Leaf), Leaf)
```

# Examples

```
let rec map f = function
 | Leaf -> Leaf
 | Node(a,t1,t2) ->
;;
```

```
val map : ('a -> 'b) -> 'a tree -> 'b tree = <fun>
map even (Node(1,Node(1,Leaf,Leaf),Leaf));;
- : bool tree = Node (false, Node (false, Leaf, Leaf), Leaf)
map ((+)1) (Node(1,Node(1,Leaf,Leaf),Leaf));;
- : int tree = Node (2, Node (2, Leaf, Leaf), Leaf)
```

# Examples

```
let rec map f = function
 | Leaf -> Leaf
 | Node(a,t1,t2) -> Node(f a,map f t1,map f t2)
;;
```

```
val map : ('a -> 'b) -> 'a tree -> 'b tree = <fun>
map even (Node(1,Node(1,Leaf,Leaf),Leaf));;
- : bool tree = Node (false, Node (false, Leaf, Leaf), Leaf)
map ((+)1) (Node(1,Node(1,Leaf,Leaf),Leaf));;
- : int tree = Node (2, Node (2, Leaf, Leaf), Leaf)
```