# Some Advanced ML Features

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# ML is small

- Small number of powerful constructs
- Easy to learn

# What is the difference between Statement and Expression?

| Class | Grammar/Meta-Variable | Examples |
|---|---|---|
| Identifiers | x, y | a, x, y, x_y, foo1000 |
| Datatype<br>Type constructors | X,Y | Nil, List |
| Constants | c | 2, 4.0, “ff”, [] |
| Expressions e | e::= x \| c \| $e_1$ $e_2$ \| ($e_1$, $e_2$, .., $e_n$)\|<br>\| if $e_1$ then $e_2$ else $e_3$ \|<br>\| let [rec] $d_1$ and … and $d_n$ in e<br>\| match e with $p_1$ -> $e_1$ \|… \|$p_n$ ->$e_n$<br>\| fun x => e | |
| Patterns p | p ::= c \| x [:t] \| ($p_1$, …, $p_n$) \| X \| X(p) | a:int, (x: int, y: int) |
| Declarations | d::= p = e \| y p [: t] = e<br>\| datatype *Y* = $X_1$ [of $t_1$] \| … \| $X_n$ [of $t_n$] | let one = 1<br>let sq(x: int): int |
| Types | t ::= int \| float \| string \| char\|<br>\| $t_1$ -> $t_2$ \| $t_1$ * … * $t_n$ \| Y | |
| Values | v ::= c \| ($v_1$, …, $v_n$) \| X(v)<br>\| fun x => e | |

# Factorial in ML

```
let rec fac n = if n = 0 then 1 else n * fac (n - 1)
```

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

```
let rec fac  n : int = if n = 0 then 1 else n * fac (n - 1)
```

```
let rec fac n =
   match n with
    | 0 -> 1
    | n -> n * fac(n - 1)
```

```
let fac n =
    let rec ifac n acc =
        if n=0 then acc else ifac n-1, n * acc
  in ifac n, 1
```

# Benefits of Functional Programming

- No side-effects
- Referential Transparency
  - The value of expression e depends only on its arguments
- Conceptual
- Commutativity
- Easier to show that the code is correct
- Easier to generate efficient implementation

# let expressions

- Introduce scope rules w/o side effects
- let x = e1 in e2
  - Introduce a new name x
  - Binds x to e1
  - Every occurrence of x in e2 is replaced by e1
- let x = e1 in e2 = ($\lambda$x.e2) e1

# Understanding let expressions

```
let
      x = f(y, z)
in
g(x, x)
```

```
let
    x = 1
    and
    y = 2
 x + y
```

C code

```
{ int x= 1;
  int y = 2;
  return x + y ;
}
```

# Let-expressions

- Syntax:
  - Each $d_i$ is any *binding* and **e** is any *expression*

```
let  d1 and … and dn  in  e
```

- Type-checking: Type-check each $d_i$ and **e** in a static environment that includes the previous bindings.

  Type of whole let-expression is the type of **e**

- Evaluation: Evaluate each $d_i$ and **e** in a dynamic environment that includes the previous bindings.

  Result of whole let-expression is result of evaluating **e**.

# Silly Examples

```
let silly1 (z : int) =
    let x = if z > 0 then z else 34
        and
        y = x+z+9
    in
        if x > y then x*2 else y*y
val silly1 : int -> int = <fun>
let silly2 (z : int) =
    let x = 1
     in
        (let x = 2 in x+1) +
        (let y= x+2 in y+1)
val silly2 : int -> int = <fun>
```

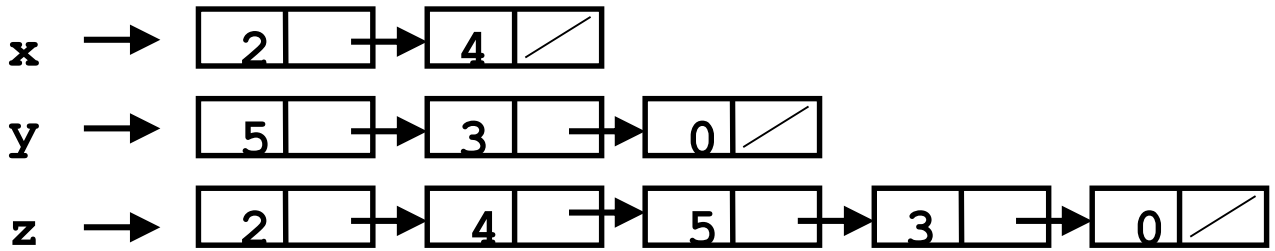
**`silly2`** is poor style but shows let-expressions are expressions

- Can also use them in function-call arguments, if branches, etc.
- Also notice shadowing

# List Example

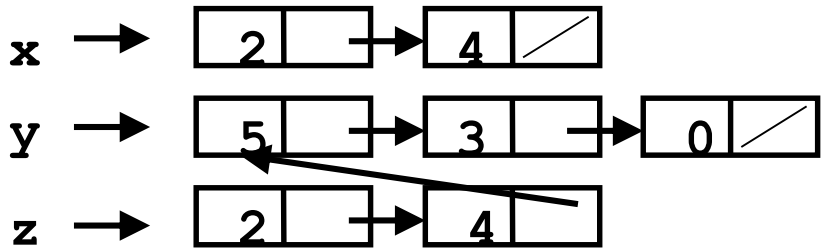
```
let rec append l1 l2 =
 match l1 with
  | []   -> l2
  | hd :: tl -> hd :: append tl l2
val append : 'a list -> 'a list -> 'a list = <fun>
```

```
let x = [2;4] //val x : int list = [2; 4]
let y = [5;3;0] //val y : int list = [5; 3; 0]
let z = append x y
  //val z : int list = [2; 4; 5; 3; 0]
```




*(can't tell, but it's the second one)*

*or*



# Exceptions

- Captures abnormal behavior
  - Error handling
  - Integrated into the type system

```
exception Error
exception Error
let sqrt1 (x : float) : float =
    if x < 0.0 then raise Error
    else sqrt x
val sqrt1 : float -> float = <fun>
```

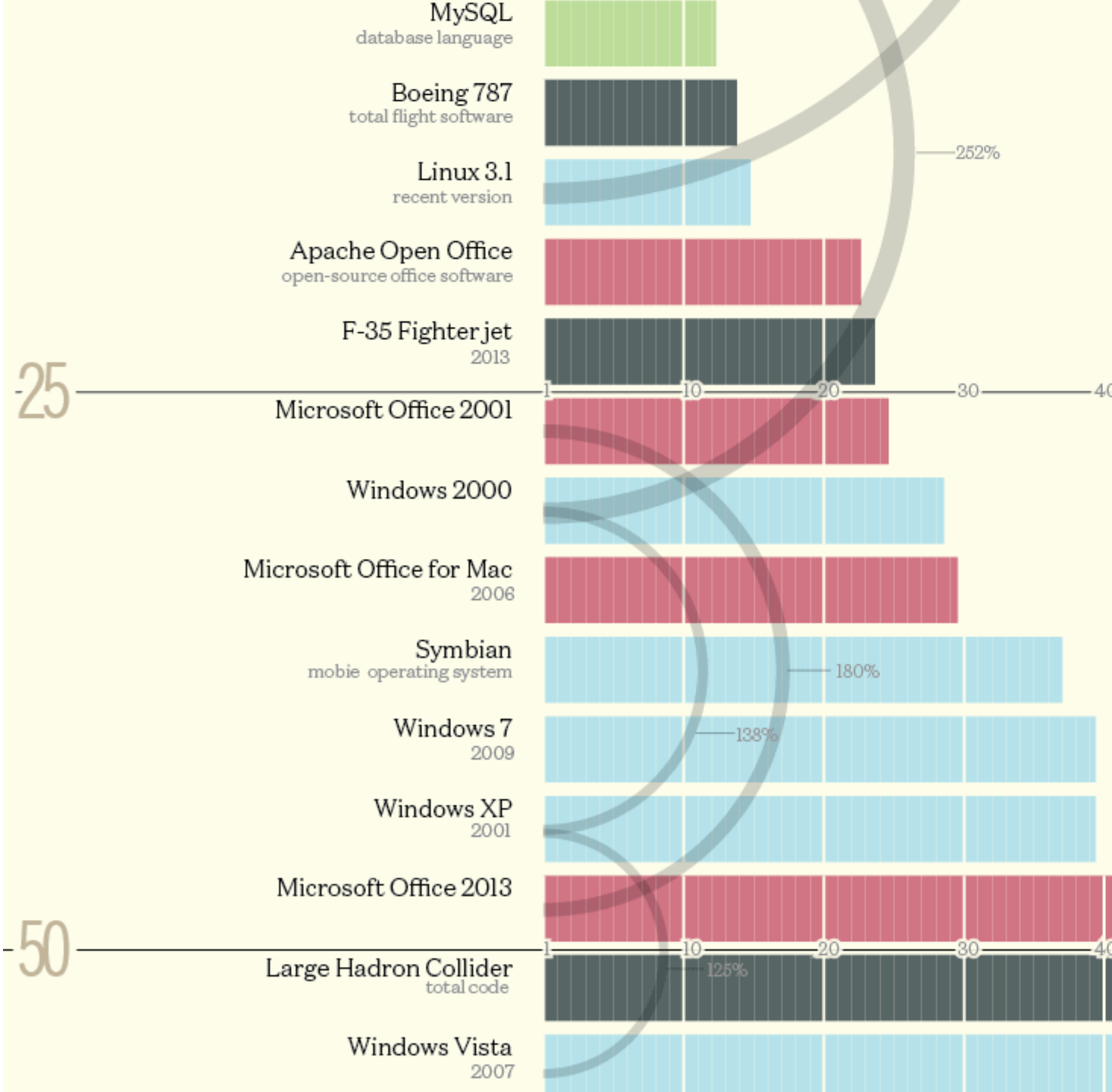
```
exception FailWith of string
```

```
raise (FailWith "Some error message")
```

# Question?

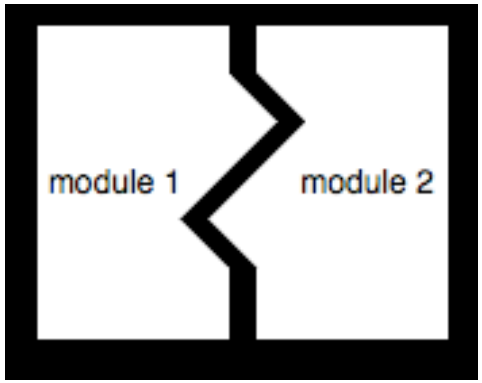
- What's the largest program you've ever worked on by yourself or as part of a team?
  A. 10-100 LoC
  B. 100-1,000 LoC
  C. 1,000-10,000 LoC
  D. 10,000-100,000 LoC
  E. >= 100,000 LoC

http://www.infor



# Modularity

- **Modular programming**: code comprises independent *modules*
  - developed separately
  - understand behavior of module in isolation
  - reason locally, not globally



# Java features for modularity

- classes, packages
  - organize identifiers (classes, methods, fields, etc.) into namespaces
- Interfaces
  - describe related classes
- public, protected, private
  - control what is visible outside a namespace

# Ocaml Features for modularity

- modules organize identifiers (functions, values, etc.) into namespaces
- signatures
  - describe related modules
- abstract types
  - control what is visible outside a namespace

# Ocaml modules

- Syntax:
  module ModuleName = struct *definitions* end
- The name must be capitalized
- The definitions can be any top-level definitions
  - let, type, exception
- Create a new namespace
- Every file myFile.ml with contents *D is essentially wrapped in a module* definition
  module MyFile = struct *D end*
- *Modules can be opened locally to save writing*

```
module M = struct  let x = 42 end
module M : sig val x : int end
let fourtytwo = M.x
val fourtytwo : int = 42
```

# Stack Module

```
module Stack = struct
   let empty =  [ ]
   let is_empty s = s = [ ]
   let push x s = x :: s
   let pop s = match s with
         [ ] -> failwith “Empty”
      | x::xs -> (x,xs)
end
module Stack :
sig
   val empty : 'a list
    val is_empty : 'a list -> bool
    val push : 'a -> 'a list -> 'a list
    val pop : 'a list -> 'a * 'a list
 end
```

```
fst (Stack.pop
(Stack.push 1 Stack.empty))
- : int = 1
```

# Might Seem Backwards…

Java:

```
s = new Stack();
s.push(1);
s.pop()
```

OCaml:

```
let s = Stack.empty in
  let s' = Stack.push 1 s in
      let (one, _) = Stack.pop s'
```

# Abstraction

- Forgetting Information
- Treating different things as identical

# Abstraction

- Programming language predefined abstractions
  - Data structures like list
  - Library functions like map and fold
- Programming languages enable to define new abstractions
  - Procedural abstractions
  - Data abstraction
  - Iterator abstraction

# Procedural Abstraction

- Abstract implementation details
  - sqrt : float -> float
- List.sort : (‘a -> ‘a -> int) -> ‘a list -> ‘a list
- Abstracts how the functions are implemented
  - Both the implementation and the usage should obey the type contract
  - The implementation can assume the right type
  - Important for composing functions

# Data Abstraction

- Abstract from details of organizing data
  - stacks, symbol tables, environments, bank accounts, polynomials, matrices, dictionaries, ...
- Abstract from implementation of organization:
  - Actual code used to add elements (e.g.) isn't Important
  - But types of operations and assumptions about what they do and what they require are important

# Ocaml Advanced Modularity Features

- Functors and Signatures
- Functions from Modules to Modules
- Permit
  - Dependency injection
  - Swap implementations
  - Advanced testing

# Stack Abstract Data Type

```
module type STACK = sig
    val empty : 'a list
    val is_empty : 'a list -> bool
    val push : 'a -> 'a list -> 'a list
    val pop : 'a list -> 'a * 'a list
end
module Stack : STACK = struct
... (* as before *)
end
```

# Stack with Abstract Data Types

```
module type STACK = sig
  type t
  val empty : t
  val is_empty : t -> bool
  val push : int -> t -> t
  val pop : t -> int * t
end
module Stack : STACK = struct
  type t = int list
  let empty = [ ]
  let is_empty s = s = [ ]
  let push x s = x :: s
  let pop s = match s with
      [ ] -> failwith "Empty”
      | x::xs -> (x,xs)
end
```

# Summary Modularity

- ML provides flexible mechanisms for modularity
- Guarantees type safety

# Side-Effects

- But sometimes side-effects are necessary
- The whole purpose of programming is to conduct side-effects
  - Input/Output
- Sometimes sharing is essential for functionality
- ML provides mechanisms to capture side-effects
  - Enable efficient handling of code with little side effects

# Input/Output

```
print_string: String -> Unit
```

```
let x = 3 in
  let () = print_string ("Value of x is " ^ (string_of_int x)) in
  x + 1
value of x is 3- : int = 4
```

$e$ ::= ... | ( $e_1$; ... ; $e_n$ )

```
let x = 3 in
  (print_string ("Value of x is " ^ (string_of_int x));
   x + 1)
```

Iterative loops are supported too

# Refs and Arrays

- Two built-in data-structures for implementing shared objects

```
module type REF =
    sig
      type 'a ref
      (* ref(x) creates a new ref containing x *)
      val ref : 'a -> 'a ref
      (* !x is the contents of the ref cell x *)
      val (!) : 'a ref -> ‘a
      (* Effects: x := y updates the contents of x
       * so it contains y. *)
      val (:=) : 'a ref -> 'a -> unit
    end
```

# Simple Ref Examples

```
let x : int ref = ref 3
  in
    let y : int = !x
     in
        (x := !x + 1);
        y + !x
- : int = 7
```

# More Examples of Imperative Programming

- Create cell and change contents

```
val x = ref “Bob”;
x := “Bill”;
```

- Create cell and increment

```
val y = ref 0;
y := !y + 1;
```

- While loop

```
val i = ref 0;
while !i < 10 do i := !i +1;
 i;
```

# Summary References

- Provide an escape for imperative programming
- But insures type safety
  - No dangling references
  - No (double) free
  - No null dereferences
- Relies on automatic memory management

# Functional Programming Languages

| PL | types | evaluation | Side-effect |
|---|---|---|---|
| scheme | Weakly typed | Eager | yes |
| ML<br>OCAML<br>F# | Polymorphic<br>strongly typed | Eager | References |
| Haskell | Polymorphic<br>strongly typed | Lazy | None |

# Things to Notice

- Pure functions are easy to test

```
prop_RevRev l = reverse(reverse l) == l
```

- In an imperative or OO language, you have to
  - set up the state of the object and the external state it reads or writes
  - make the call
  - inspect the state of the object and the external state
  - perhaps copy part of the object or global state, so that you can use it in the post condition

# Things to Notice

Types are everywhere.

```
reverse:: [w] -> [w]
```

- Usual static-typing panegyric omitted...
- In ML, types express high-level design, in the same way that UML diagrams do, with the advantage that the type signatures are machine-checked
- Types are (almost always) optional: type inference fills them in if you leave them out

# Information from Type Inference

- Consider this function…

```
let reverse ls = match ls with
  [] -> []
  | x :: xs -> reverse xs
```

… and its most general type:

```
val reverse :: list 't_1 -> list 't_2 = function
```

- What does this type mean?

Reversing a list should not change its type, so there must be an error in the definition of reverse!

# Recommended ML Textbooks

- L. C. PAULSON: ML for the Working Programmer
- J. Ullman: Elements of ML Programming
- R. Harper: Programming in Standard ML

# Recommended Ocaml Textbooks

- Xavier Leroy: The OCaml system release 4.02
  - Part I: Introduction
- Jason Hickey: Introduction to Objective Caml
- Yaron Minsky, Anil Madhavapeddy, Jason Hickey: Real World Ocaml

# Summary

- Functional programs provide concise coding
- Compiled code compares with C code
- Successfully used in some commercial applications
  - F#, ERLANG, Jane Street
- Ideas used in imperative programs
- Good conceptual tool
- Less popular than imperative programs