

# Simple Functional Data

COS 326

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What is the single most important mathematical concept ever developed in human history?

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An answer: The mathematical variable

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(runner up: natural numbers/induction)

# Why is the mathematical variable so important?

The mathematician says:

“Let  $x$  be some integer, we define a polynomial over  $x$  ...”

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The mathematician says:

“Let  $x$  be some integer, we define a polynomial over  $x$  ...”

What is going on here? The mathematician has separated a *definition* (of  $x$ ) from its *use* (in the polynomial).

This is the most primitive kind of *abstraction* ( $x$  is *some* integer)

*Abstraction* is the key to controlling complexity and without it, modern mathematics, science, and computation would not exist.

It allows *reuse* of ideas, theorems ... functions and programs!

# **OCAML BASICS: LET DECLARATIONS**

# Abstraction & Abbreviation

In OCaml, the most basic technique for factoring your code is to use **let expressions**

Instead of writing this expression:

```
(2 + 3) * (2 + 3)
```

We write this one:

```
let x = 2 + 3 in  
x * x
```



# A Few More Let Expressions

```
let x = 2 in
let squared = x * x in
let cubed = x * squared in
squared * cubed
```

```
let a = "a" in
let b = "b" in
let as = a ^ a ^ a in
let bs = b ^ b ^ b in
as ^ bs
```

# A Technical Note: The Structure of a .ml File

Foo.ml

```
<declaration>
```

```
<declaration>
```

```
...
```

Every .ml file is a sequence  
of *declarations*

These “declarations” are a little  
different than “expressions”

# A Technical Note: The Structure of a .ml File

Bar.ml

```
let x = 17 + 5  
let y = x + 22
```

Bar.ml contains two *let declarations*

Let declarations do not end with “in”

Let declarations have the form:

*let <var> = <expression>*

# A Technical Note: The Structure of a .ml File

Baz.ml

```
let x =  
  let z = 22 in  
  z + z  
  
let y =  
  if x < 17 then  
    let w = x + 1 in  
    2 * w  
  else  
    26
```

Because let declarations have this form:

*let <var> = <expression>*

they contain expressions

... including “let expressions” which have the form:

*let <var> = <expression> in <expression>*

# OCaml Variables are Immutable

Once *bound* to a value, a variable is never modified or changed.

```
let x = 3
```

```
let add_three (y:int) : int = y + x
```


given a *use* of a variable, like this one for *x*, work outwards and upwards through a program to find the closest enclosing *definition*. That is the value of this use *forever and always*.

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# OCaml Variables are Immutable

Once *bound* to a value, a variable is never modified or changed.

```
let x = 3  
let add_three (y:int) : int = y + x
```



It does not  
matter what  
I write next.  
add\_three  
will always  
add 3!





# OCaml Variables are Immutable

Once *bound* to a value, a variable is never modified or changed.

a distinct variable that "happens to be spelled the same"

```
let x = 3
```

```
let add_three (y:int) : int = y + x
```

```
let x = 4
```

```
let add_four (y:int) : int = y + x
```

# OCaml Variables are Immutable

A use of a variable always refers to its *closest* (in terms of syntactic distance) enclosing declaration. Hence, we say OCaml is a *statically scoped* (or *lexically scoped*) language

```
let x = 3
    ←
let add_three (y:int) : int = y + x

let x = 4
    ←
let add_four (y:int) : int = y + x

let add_seven (y:int) : int =
  add_three (add_four y)
```

we can use  
add\_three  
without worrying  
about the second  
definition of x

# OCaml Variables are Immutable

Since the two variables (both happened to be named `x`) are actually different, unconnected things, we can rename them.

This is known as *alpha-conversion*.

you can rename  
`x` to `zzz`  
by replacing  
the definition  
and all its uses with  
the new name

```
let x = 3
    ←
let add_three (y:int) : int = y + x
    ←
let x = 4
    ←
let add_four (y:int) : int = y + x
    ←
let add_seven (y:int) : int =
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```
let x = 3
    ←
let add_three (y:int) : int = y + x
    ←
let zzz = 4
    ←
let add_four (y:int) : int = y + zzz

let add_seven (y:int) : int =
  add_three (add_four y)
```

# How does OCaml execute a let expression?

```
let x = <expression1> in  
<expression2>
```

In a nutshell:

- execute <expression1>, until you get a value v1
- substitute that value v1 for x in <expression2>
- execute <expression2>, until you get a value v2
- the result of the whole execution is v2

# How does OCaml execute a let expression?

```
let x = 2 + 1 in x * x
```

-->

```
let x = 3 in x * x
```

# How does OCaml execute a let expression?

```
let x = 2 + 1 in x * x
```


-->

```
let x = 3 in x * x
```

-->

```
3 * 3
```

substitute  
3 for x



# How does OCaml execute a let expression?

```
let x = 2 + 1 in x * x
```

-->

```
let x = 3 in x * x
```


-->

```
3 * 3
```

-->

```
9
```

substitute  
3 for x





# How does OCaml execute a let expression?

```
let x = 2 + 1 in x * x
```

-->

```
let x = 3 in x * x
```


-->

```
3 * 3
```

-->

```
9
```

substitute  
3 for x



**Note:** I write  
 $e1 \rightarrow e2$   
when  $e1$  evaluates  
to  $e2$  in one step

# Meta-comment

OCaml expression

OCaml expression



let x = 2 in x + 3 --> 2 + 3

I defined the language in terms of itself:  
By reduction of one OCaml expression to another

I'm trying to train you to think at a high level of  
abstraction.

*I didn't have to mention low-level abstractions like  
assembly code or registers or memory layout to tell you  
how OCaml works.*


# Another Example

```
let x = 2 in  
let y = x + x in  
y * x
```

# Another Example

```
let x = 2 in  
let y = x + x in  
y * x
```

substitute  
2 for x




-->

```
let y = 2 + 2 in  
y * 2
```

# Another Example

```
let x = 2 in  
let y = x + x in  
y * x
```

substitute  
2 for x



-->

```
let y = 2 + 2 in  
y * 2
```


-->

```
let y = 4      in  
y * 2
```

# Another Example

```
let x = 2 in  
let y = x + x in  
y * x
```

substitute  
2 for x




-->

```
let y = 2 + 2 in  
y * 2
```

-->

```
let y = 4      in  
y * 2
```

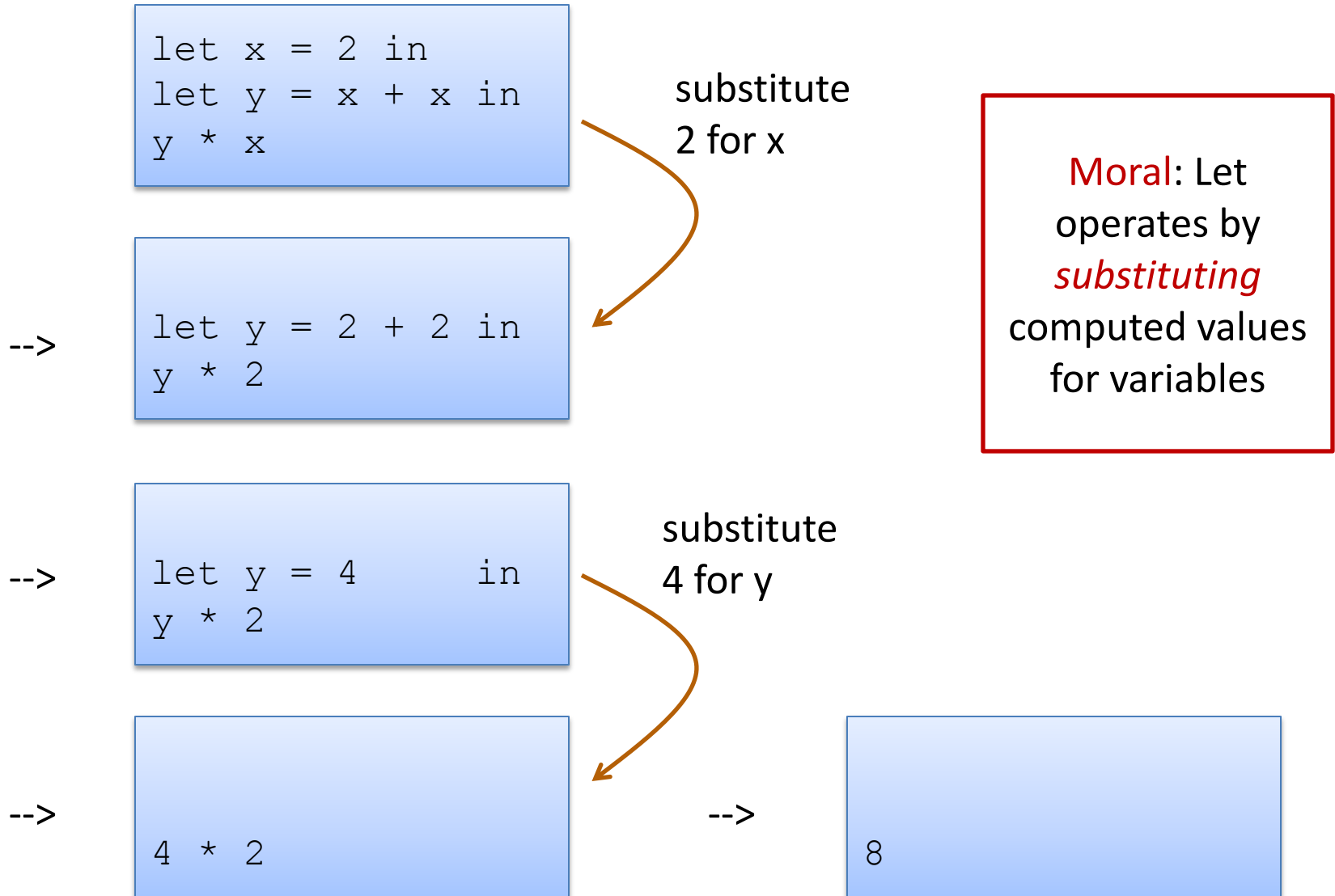
substitute  
4 for y



-->

```
4 * 2
```

# Another Example

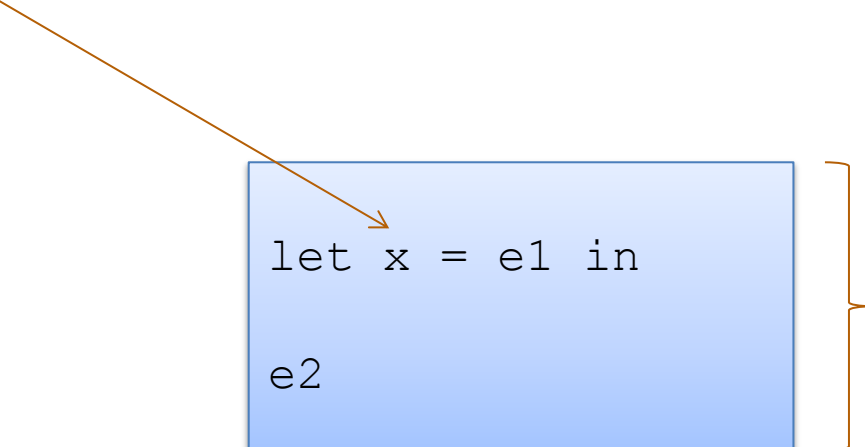


# **OCAML BASICS: TYPE CHECKING AGAIN**



# Back to Let Expressions ... Typing

x granted type of e1 for use in e2



```
let x = e1 in  
e2
```

The diagram shows a blue rectangular box containing the text 'let x = e1 in' on the first line and 'e2' on the second line. An orange arrow points from the text 'x granted type of e1 for use in e2' to the variable 'x' in the first line. A brown bracket on the right side of the box encompasses both lines of code.

overall expression  
takes on the type of e2

# Back to Let Expressions ... Typing

x granted type of e1 for use in e2

```
let x = e1 in  
e2
```

overall expression  
takes on the type of e2

x has type int  
for use inside the  
let body

```
let x = 3 + 4 in  
string_of_int x
```

overall expression  
has type string

# Let Expressions Really Are Expressions

$2 + 3$  ← an expression

# Let Expressions Really Are Expressions

2 + 3

← an expression

```
let x = 2 + 3 in  
x + x
```

← an expression

# Let Expressions Really Are Expressions

```
2 + 3
```

← an expression

```
let x = 2 + 3 in  
x + x
```

← an expression

an expression

```
let x = let y = 2 + 3 in y + 5 in  
1 + x
```

let expressions can appear anywhere other expressions can appear. they can be *nested*

# Exercise

(a)

```
let x =  
  let y = 2 + 3 in y  
in  
  let x = "1" in  
x + x
```

(b)

```
let x =  
  let y = "2" ^ "3" in y  
in  
  let x = 1 in  
x + x
```

Which of (a) or (b) type check? Explain why.

On a piece of paper (or in your favorite editor), show the step-by-step evaluation of the example that type checks.

Critique the *programming style* used in these examples.

# **OCAML BASICS: FUNCTIONS**

# Defining functions

```
let add_one (x:int) : int = 1 + x
```



# Defining functions

let keyword

```
let add_one (x:int) : int = 1 + x
```

function name

argument name

type of argument

type of result

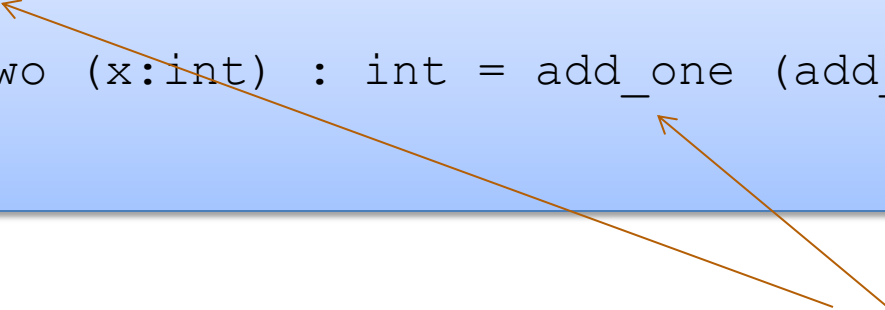
expression  
that computes  
value produced  
by function

Note: recursive functions with begin with **"let rec"**

# Defining functions

Nonrecursive functions:

```
let add_one (x:int) : int = 1 + x
let add_two (x:int) : int = add_one (add_one x)
```



definition of add\_one  
must come before use

# Defining functions

Nonrecursive functions:

```
let add_one (x:int) : int = 1 + x  
let add_two (x:int) : int = add_one (add_one x)
```

With a local definition:

```
let add_two' (x:int) : int =  
  let add_one x = 1 + x in  
  add_one (add_one x)
```

local function definition  
hidden from clients

I left off the types.  
OCaml figures them out

Good style: types on  
top-level definitions

# Types for Functions

Some functions:

```
let add_one (x:int) : int = 1 + x  
let add_two (x:int) : int = add_one (add_one x)  
let add (x:int) (y:int) : int = x + y
```

 function with two arguments

Types for functions:

```
add_one : int -> int  
add_two : int -> int  
add : int -> int -> int
```

# Rule for type-checking functions

General Rule:

If a function  $f : T1 \rightarrow T2$   
and an argument  $e : T1$   
then  $f e : T2$

Example:

```
add_one : int -> int
```

```
3 + 4 : int
```

```
add_one (3 + 4) : int
```

# Rule for type-checking functions

Recall the type of add:

Definition:

```
let add (x:int) (y:int) : int =  
  x + y
```

Type:

```
add : int -> int -> int
```

# Rule for type-checking functions

Recall the type of add:

Definition:

```
let add (x:int) (y:int) : int =  
  x + y
```

Type:

```
add : int -> int -> int
```

Same as:

```
add : int -> (int -> int)
```

# Rule for type-checking functions

General Rule:

If a function  $f : T1 \rightarrow T2$   
and an argument  $e : T1$   
then  $f e : T2$

$A \rightarrow B \rightarrow C$

same as:

$A \rightarrow (B \rightarrow C)$

Example:

```
add : int -> int -> int
```

```
3 + 4 : int
```

```
add (3 + 4) : ???
```



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and an argument  $e : T1$   
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Example:

```
add : int -> (int -> int)
```

```
3 + 4 : int
```

```
add (3 + 4) :
```

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same as:

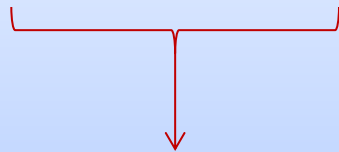
$A \rightarrow (B \rightarrow C)$

Example:

`add : int -> (int -> int)`

`3 + 4 : int`

`add (3 + 4) : int -> int`



# Rule for type-checking functions

General Rule:

If a function  $f : T1 \rightarrow T2$   
and an argument  $e : T1$   
then  $f e : T2$

$A \rightarrow B \rightarrow C$

same as:

$A \rightarrow (B \rightarrow C)$


Example:

```
add : int -> int -> int
```

```
3 + 4 : int
```

```
add (3 + 4) : int -> int
```

```
(add (3 + 4)) 7 : int
```



# Rule for type-checking functions

General Rule:

If a function  $f : T1 \rightarrow T2$   
and an argument  $e : T1$   
then  $f e : T2$

$A \rightarrow B \rightarrow C$

same as:

$A \rightarrow (B \rightarrow C)$

Example:


`add : int -> int -> int`

`3 + 4 : int`

`add (3 + 4) : int -> int`

`add (3 + 4) 7 : int`

extra parens  
not necessary



# One key thing to remember

- If you have a function  $f$  with a type like this:

$$A \rightarrow B \rightarrow C \rightarrow D \rightarrow E \rightarrow F$$

- Then each time you add an argument, you can get the type of the result by knocking off the first type in the series

$$f\ a1 : B \rightarrow C \rightarrow D \rightarrow E \rightarrow F \quad (\text{if } a1 : A)$$

$$f\ a1\ a2 : C \rightarrow D \rightarrow E \rightarrow F \quad (\text{if } a2 : B)$$

$$f\ a1\ a2\ a3 : D \rightarrow E \rightarrow F \quad (\text{if } a3 : C)$$

$$f\ a1\ a2\ a3\ a4\ a5 : F \quad (\text{if } a4 : D \text{ and } a5 : E)$$

# **TYPE ERRORS**

# Type Checking Rules

Type errors for if statements can be confusing sometimes. Recall:

```
let rec concatn s n =  
  if n <= 0 then  
    ...  
  else  
    s ^ (concatn s (n-1))
```

# Type Checking Rules

Type errors for if statements can be confusing sometimes. Recall:

```
let rec concatn s n =  
  if n <= 0 then  
    ...  
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    s ^ (concatn s (n-1))
```

ocaml might point to (concatn s (n-1)) and says:

```
Error: This expression has type int but an  
expression was expected of type string
```



# Type Checking Rules

Type errors for if statements can be confusing sometimes. Recall:

```
let rec concatn s n =  
  if n <= 0 then  
    ...  
  else  
    s ^ (concatn s (n-1))
```

ocaml might say:

```
Error: This expression has type int but an  
expression was expected of type string
```

or ocaml might point to the expression (s ^ (concatn ...)) and say:


```
Error: This expression has type string but an  
expression was expected of type int
```

# Type Checking Rules

Type errors for if statements can be confusing sometimes.

Example. We create a string from  $s$ , concatenating it  $n$  times:

```
let rec concatn s n =  
  if n <= 0 then  
    ...  
  else  
    s ^ (concatn s (n-1))
```



???

**Error: This expression has type int but an expression was expected of type string**

**Error: This expression has type string but an expression was expected of type int**

# Type Checking Rules

Type errors for if statements can be confusing sometimes.

Example. We create a string from `s`, concatenating it `n` times:

they don't  
*agree!*

```
let rec concatn s n =  
  if n <= 0 then  
    0  
  else  
    s ^ (concatn s (n-1))
```

???

**Error: This expression has type int but an expression was expected of type string**

**Error: This expression has type string but an expression was expected of type int**

# Type Checking Rules

Type errors for if statements can be confusing sometimes.

Example. We create a string from  $s$ , concatenating it  $n$  times:

they don't  
agree!

```
let rec concatn s n =  
  if n <= 0 then  
    0  
  else  
    s ^ (concatn s (n-1))
```


???

The type checker points to *some* place where there is *disagreement*.

Moral: *Sometimes you need to look in an earlier branch for the error* even though the type checker points to a later branch.  
The type checker doesn't know what the user wants.

# A Tactic: Add Typing Annotations

```
let rec concatn (s:string) (n:int) : string =  
  if n <= 0 then  
    0  
  else  
    s ^ (concatn s (n-1))
```



**Error: This expression has type int but an expression was expected of type string**

# Exercise

Given the following code:

```
let munge b x =  
  if not b then  
    string_of_int x  
  else  
    "hello"  
  
let y = 17
```

What are the types of the following expressions?  
(And what must the types of  $f$  and  $g$  be?)

```
munge : ??
```

```
munge (y > 17) : ??
```

```
munge true (f (munge false 3)) : ??
```

```
munge true (g munge) : ??
```

# DATA STRUCTURES: THE TUPLE

\* it is really our second complex data structure since functions are data structures too!

# Tuples

A tuple is a fixed, finite, ordered collection of values

Some examples with their types:

```
(1, 2) : int * int
("hello", 7 + 3, true) : string * int * bool
('a', ("hello", "goodbye")) : char * (string * string)
```



# Tuples

To use a tuple, we extract its components

General case:

```
let (id1, id2, ..., idn) = e1 in e2
```

An example:

```
let (x, y) = (2, 4) in x + x + y
```

# Tuples

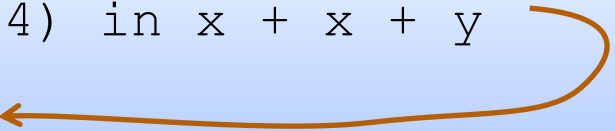
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let (id1, id2, ..., idn) = e1 in e2
```

An example:

```
let (x, y) = (2, 4) in x + x + y  
--> 2 + 2 + 4
```



substitute!

# Tuples

To use a tuple, we extract its components

General case:

```
let (id1, id2, ..., idn) = e1 in e2
```

An example:

```
let (x, y) = (2, 4) in x + x + y  
--> 2 + 2 + 4  
--> 8
```

# Rules for Typing Tuples

if  $e1 : t1$  and  $e2 : t2$   
then  $(e1, e2) : t1 * t2$

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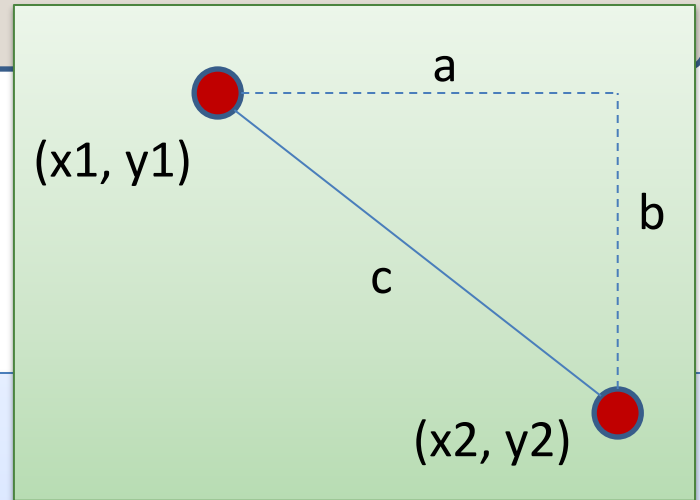
if  $e1 : t1 * t2$  then  
 $x1 : t1$  and  $x2 : t2$   
inside the expression  $e2$

let  $(x1, x2) = e1$  in  
 $e2$

overall expression  
takes on the type of  $e2$

# Distance between two points

$$c^2 = a^2 + b^2$$



## Problem:

- A point is represented as a pair of floating point values.
- Write a function that takes in two points as arguments and returns the distance between them as a floating point number

# Writing Functions Over Typed Data

Steps to writing functions over typed data:

1. **Write down** the function and argument names
2. **Write down** argument and result **types**
3. **Write down** some examples (in a comment)

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  - *the **argument types** suggests how to do it*
5. **Build** new output values
  - *the **result type** suggests how you do it*



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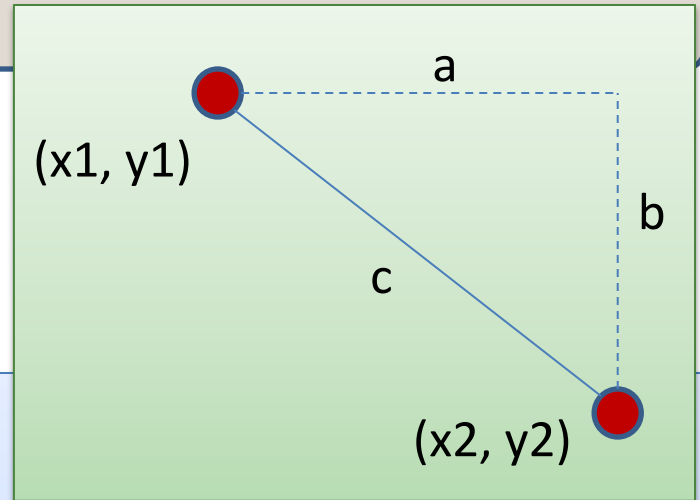
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  - define and reuse helper functions
  - your code should be elegant and easy to read

*Types help structure your thinking about how to write programs.*

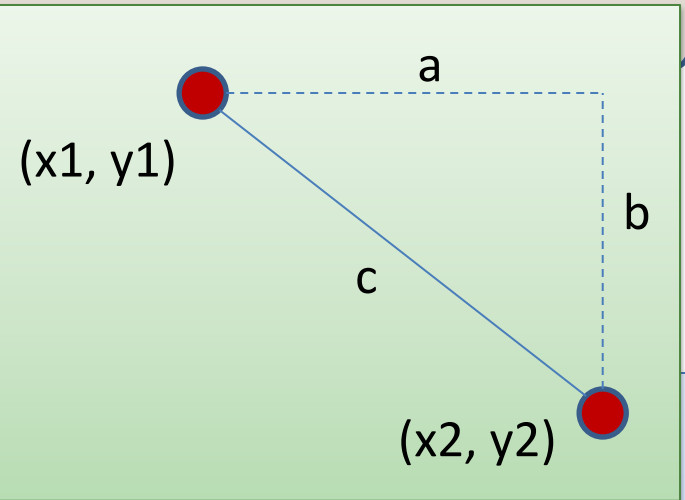
# Distance between two points

a type abbreviation

```
type point = float * float
```

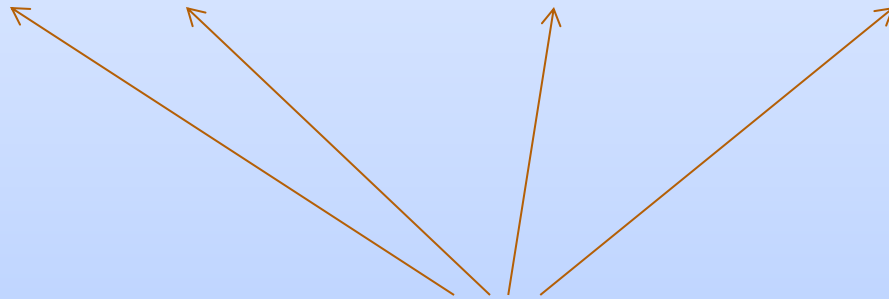


# Distance between two points



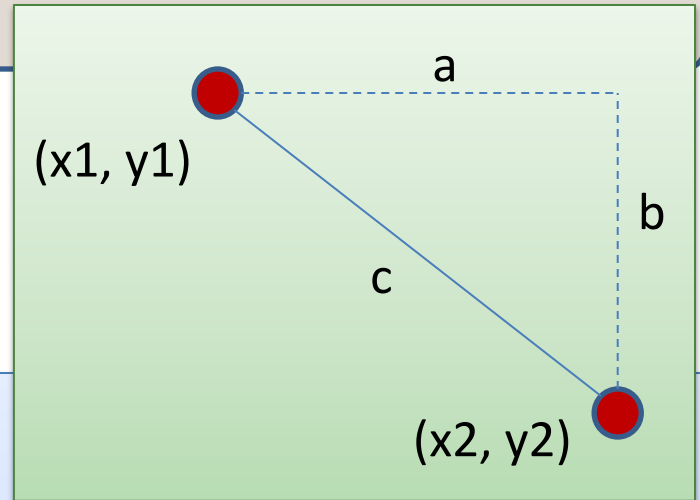
```
type point = float * float
```

```
let distance (p1:point) (p2:point) : float =
```



write down function name  
argument names and types

# Distance between two points



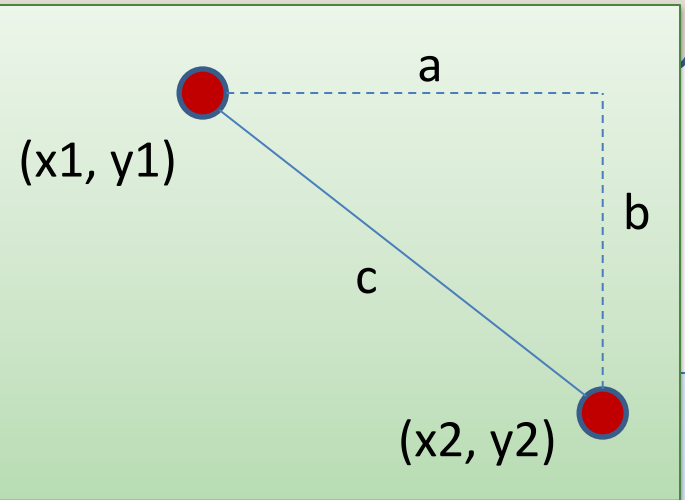
examples

```
type point = float * float
```

```
(* distance (0.0,0.0) (0.0,1.0) == 1.0
 * distance (0.0,0.0) (1.0,1.0) == sqrt(1.0 + 1.0)
 *
 * from the picture:
 * distance (x1,y1) (x2,y2) == sqrt(a^2 + b^2)
 *)
```

```
let distance (p1:point) (p2:point) : float =
```

# Distance between two points



```
type point = float * float
```

```
let distance (p1:point) (p2:point) : float =
```

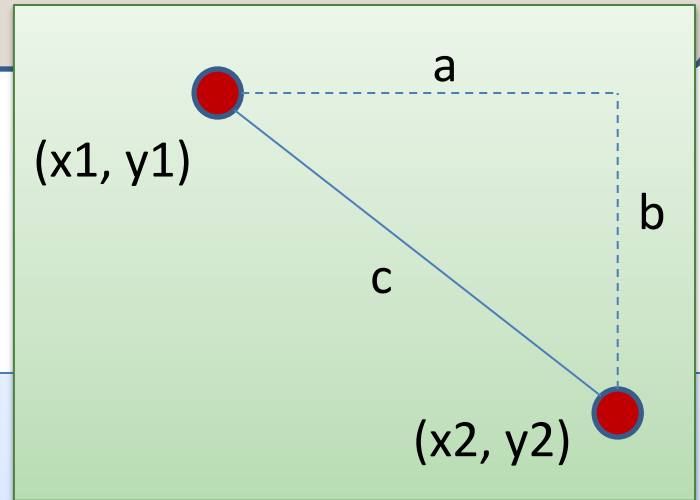
```
  let (x1,y1) = p1 in
```

```
  let (x2,y2) = p2 in
```

```
  ...
```

deconstruct  
function inputs

# Distance between two points



```
type point = float * float
```

```
let distance (p1:point) (p2:point) : float =
```

```
  let (x1,y1) = p1 in
```

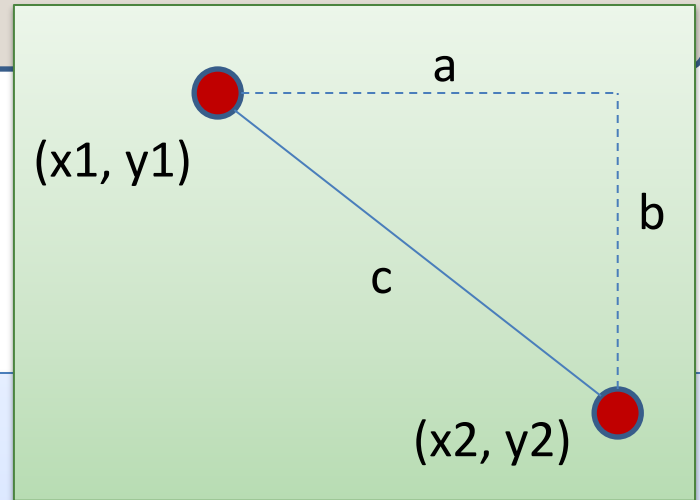
```
  let (x2,y2) = p2 in
```

```
  sqrt ((x2 -. x1) *. (x2 -. x1) +.  
        (y2 -. y1) *. (y2 -. y1))
```

} compute  
function  
results

notice operators on  
floats have a "." in them

# Distance between two points



```
type point = float * float
```

```
let distance (p1:point) (p2:point) : float =
```

```
  let square x = x *. x in
```

```
  let (x1,y1) = p1 in
```

```
  let (x2,y2) = p2 in
```

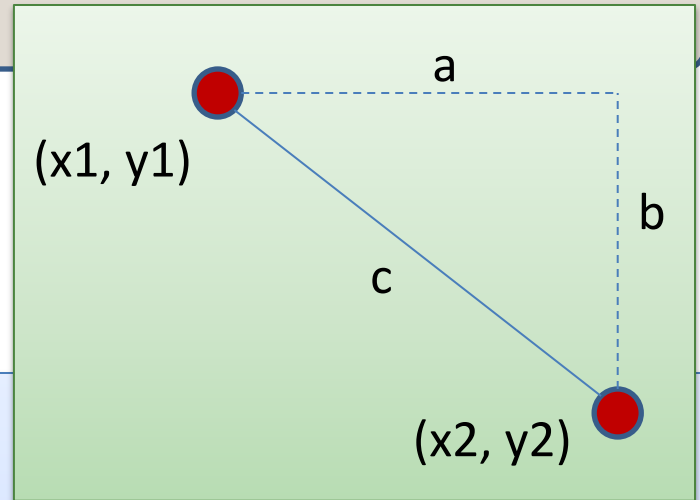
```
  sqrt (square (x2 -. x1)) +.
```

```
        square (y2 -. y1))
```

define helper functions to  
avoid repeated code



# Distance between two points

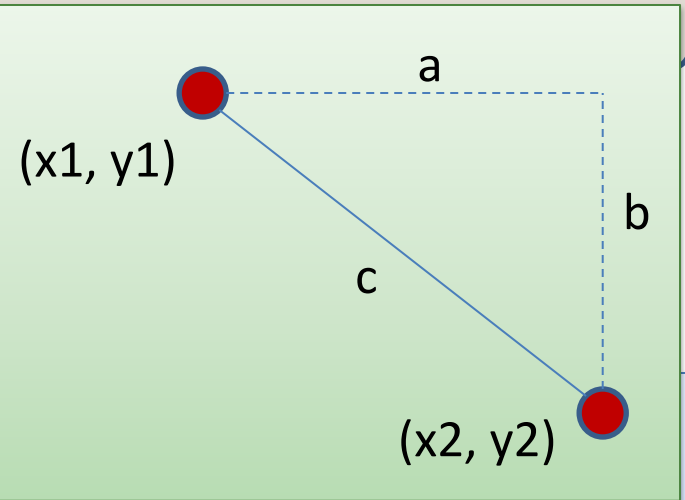


```
type point = float * float
```

```
let distance (x1,y1) (x2,y2) =  
  let square x = x *. x in  
  sqrt (square (x2 -. x1) +. square (y2 -. y1))
```

use tuple patterns  
in function arguments  
if you'd like

# Distance between two points

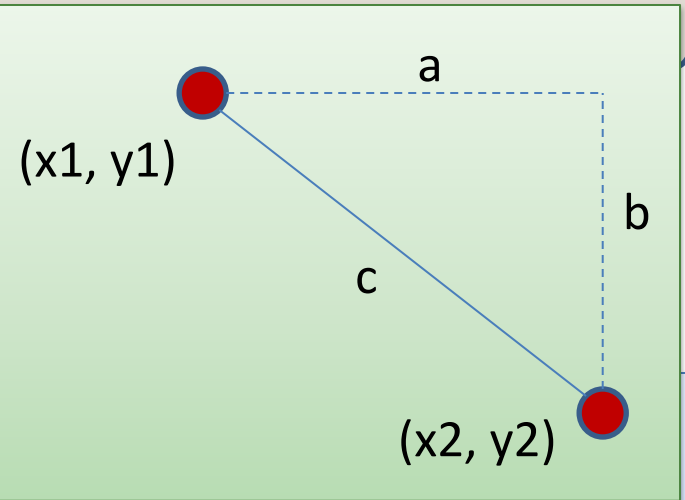


```
type point = float * float
```

```
let distance ((x1,y1):point) ((x2,y2):point) : float =  
  let square x = x *. x in  
  sqrt (square (x2 -. x1) +. square (y2 -. y1))
```

type annotations  
can be included

# Distance between two points



```
type point = float * float
```

```
let distance (p1:point) (p2:point) : float =  
  let square x = x *. x in  
  let (x1,y1) = p1 in  
  let (x2,y2) = p2 in  
  sqrt (square (x2 -. x1) +. square (y2 -. y1))
```

```
let pt1 = (2.0,3.0)  
let pt2 = (0.0,1.0)  
let dist12 = distance pt1 pt2
```

← implement some tests

# MORE TUPLES

# Tuples

Here's a tuple with 2 fields:

```
(4.0, 5.0) : float * float
```

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```

Here's a tuple with 3 fields:

```
(4.0, 5, "hello") : float * int * string
```

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```

Here's a tuple with 4 fields:

```
(4.0, 5, "hello", 55) : float * int * string * int
```

# Tuples

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```

Here's a tuple with 4 fields:

```
(4.0, 5, "hello", 55) : float * int * string * int
```

Here's a tuple with 0 fields:

```
() : unit
```



**SUMMARY:**  
**BASIC FUNCTIONAL PROGRAMMING**

# Writing Functions Over Typed Data

Steps to writing functions over typed data:

1. Write down the function and argument names
2. Write down argument and result types
3. Write down some examples (in a comment)
4. **Deconstruct** input data structures
5. **Build** new output values
6. Clean up by identifying repeated patterns

For tuple types:

- when the **input** has type  $t1 * t2$ 
  - use `let (x,y) = ...` to **deconstruct**
- when the **output** has type  $t1 * t2$ 
  - use `(e1, e2)` to **construct**

We will see this paradigm repeat itself over and over

# Records

Records are a lot like tuples. It's just that they have named fields.

Having named fields (records rather than tuples) often makes it easier to understand a program, especially when there are more than just 2 or 3 fields in a structure.

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An example:

```
type name = {first:string; last:string;}  
  
let my_name = {first="David"; last="Walker"}  
  
let to_string (n:name) = n.last ^ ", " ^ n.first
```

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Note: Records come with several other useful features, like functional updates via “with expressions.”

See *Real World OCaml* for more info.

**WRAP-UP**

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## Exercise

What error do you get when you try to compile this file? (Type it in.) Why?

```
type item = {
  number: int;
  name: string;
}

type contact = {
  name: string*string; (* first and last name *)
  phone: item;
}

let get_name x = x.name

let myphone = {number=122; name="iphone";}

let _ = print_endline (get_name myphone)
```