

INF231:  
Functional Algorithmic and Programming  
Lecture 1: Introduction, simple expressions and simple types

Academic Year 2023 - 2024

$f(x)$



## The right vision about computer science

Computer science is NOT about:

- ▶ using a computer
- ▶ fix a computer
- ▶ using a software or the Internet (Facebook, Google, MsWord, ...)

Among other things, computer science is about:

- ▶ understanding computers
- ▶ understanding computation
- ▶ designing (efficient) methods to compute

*“Computer science is no more about computers  
than astronomy is about telescopes.”*

Edsger Wybe Dijkstra

# About algorithms and algorithmic

A central and basic concept in computer science

Algorithmic consists in:

- ▶ Automating methods meant to solve a problem
- ▶ Study correctness, completeness, and efficiency of a solution  
⇒ This means: you need to “think hard about it”, not just code it.

Four styles (among others) can be used to express algorithms:

- ▶ imperative-style: a list of actions
- ▶ object-oriented: objects and their interactions are the central components
- ▶ logical languages: predicates are the central components
- ▶ **functional-style**: closer to mathematical concepts

Then we turn algorithms into programs using a programming language

# Imperative vs functional algorithmic styles

On examples

## Example (“Currying”)

Functions are the first class citizens

### Imperative style (Python)

```
def area_rectangle  
(width,length):  
    return width*length
```

### Functional style (OCaml)

```
: let area_rectangle  
  (width:int) (length:int):int  
:   = width*length  
:  
. let area_rectangle_of_width2  
: = area_rectangle 2
```

What is `area_rectangle 2` ?

- ▶ for Python: an argument error!
- ▶ for OCaml: the function `length`  $\mapsto 2 \times \text{length}$ .

# Imperative vs functional algorithmic styles

On examples

## Example (Factorial of an integer)

### Imperative style (Python)

```
def fact (n):  
    if n==0:  
        return 1  
    else:  
        res = 1  
        for (i in range(n)):  
            res = res *(i+1)  
  
    return res
```

### Functional style (OCaml)

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

- ▶ code is shorter
- ▶ exactly the mathematical definition
- ▶ easier to understand

# Imperative vs functional algorithmic styles

On examples

## Example (GCD of two integers $a$ and $b$ )

Can be computed using the remainder of the Euclidean division of  $a$  by  $b$

### Imperative style (Python)

```
def gcd (a,b):  
    r = a%b  
    while (r!=0):  
        a = b  
        b = r  
  
    return b
```

### Functional style (OCaml)

```
∴  
∴  
let rec gcd (a:int) (b:int):int  
∴   = let r = a mod b in  
∴     if r = 0 then b  
∴       else gcd b r  
∴  
∴
```

- ▶ code is shorter
- ▶ nothing is modified
- ▶ closer to the mathematical procedure

# Imperative vs functional algorithmic styles

## The killing example

### Example (Creating affine functions)

Given two integers  $a$  and  $b$ , compute/return the function  $x \mapsto a * x + b$

Imperative style (Python)

```
a nightmare ...  
(unless using  
lambda-function)
```

Functional style (OCaml)

⋮

```
⋮ let affine (a:int) (b:int):int -> int  
⋮   = fun x -> a*x+b
```

⋮

## Le langage [O]Caml

[O]Caml is a **newly developed** programming language that succeeds in being at the same time **very powerful** and yet **simple** to understand. Resulting from a long reflection on programming languages, [O]Caml is organized around a **small number of basic notions**, each of which is easy to understand, and whose combination proves to be extremely fertile. [O]Caml's simplicity and **rigor** have made its popularity grow in the teaching of computer science, particularly as the first language in introductory programming courses. Its expressiveness and power make it a language of choice in research laboratories [...]. In short, [O]Caml is an easy language with which to solve difficult problems.

translated from: “Le langage Caml” (Leroy, Weis)<sup>1</sup>

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<sup>1</sup>[O]Caml est un langage de programmation de **conception récente** qui réussit à être à la fois **très puissant** et cependant **simple** à comprendre. Issu d'une longue réflexion sur les langages de programmation, [O]Caml s'organise autour d'un **petit nombre de notions de base**, chacune facile à comprendre, et dont la combinaison se révèle extrêmement féconde. La simplicité et la **rigueur** de [O]Caml lui valent une popularité grandissante dans l'enseignement de l'informatique, en particulier comme premier langage dans des cours d'initiation à la programmation. Son expressivité et sa puissance en font un langage de choix dans les laboratoires de recherche [...]. En bref, [O]Caml est un langage facile avec lequel on résout des problèmes difficiles.



# Le language [O]Caml and Functional languages in general

in a nutshell

Result of the fruitful collaboration of mathematicians and computer scientists:

- ▶ they have the rigor of mathematics
- ▶ they rely on few but powerful concepts ( $\lambda$ -calculus)
- ▶ they are as expressive as other languages (Turing complete)
- ▶ they favor efficient, concise and effective algorithms
- ▶ they insist on typing

Example (OCaml in nature)



**Unison**  
File Synchronizer

**LexiFi**



...

# About OCaml and functional languages in general

## Features and Advantages

### Features:

**Functional:** ▶ functions are first-class values and citizens  
▶ highly flexible with the use of functions: nesting, passed as argument, storing

**strongly typed:** ▶ everything is typed at compile time  
▶ syntactic constraints on programs

**type inference:** “types automatically computed from the context”

**polymorphic:** “generic functions”

**pattern-matching:** “a super `if`”

### Advantages:

**Rigorous:** closer to mathematical concepts

**More concise:** less mistakes

**Typing is a central concept:** better type-safe than sorry

## Primitive types and basic expressions

`int`: the integers

The set of signed integers  $\mathbb{Z}$ , e.g.,  $-10, 2, 0, 3, 9 \dots$

Several alternate forms:

<code>ddd ...</code>	an int literal specified in decimal
<code>0oooo ...</code>	an int literal specified in octal
<code>0bbbb... </code>	an int literal specified in binary
<code>0xhhh ...</code>	an int literal specified in hexadecimal

where  $d$  (resp.  $o$ ,  $b$ ,  $h$ ) denotes a decimal (resp. octal, binary, hexadecimal) digit

Usual operations:

<code>-i</code>	negation	<code>lnot</code>	bit-wise inverse
<code>i + j</code>	addition	<code>i lsl j</code>	logical shift left
<code>i - j</code>	subtraction	<code>i lsr j</code>	logical-shift right
<code>i * j</code>	multiplication	<code>i land j</code>	bitwise-and
<code>i / j</code>	division	<code>i lor j</code>	bitwise-or
<code>i mod j</code>	remainder	<code>i lxor j</code>	bitwise exclusive-or

DEMO: integers

## Primitive types and basic expressions

`float`: the real numbers

The set of real numbers  $\mathbb{R}$  (an approximation actually): dynamically scaled floating point numbers

Requires at least either:

- ▶ a decimal point, or
- ▶ an exponent (base 10), prefixed by an *e* or *E*

**Remark** Not exact computation □

### Example

0.2, 2e7, 1E10, 10.3E2, 33.23234E(-1.5), 2.

Usual operators:

<code>-.x</code>	floating-point negation
<code>x +. y</code>	floating-point addition
<code>x -. y</code>	floating-point subtraction
<code>x *. y</code>	float-point multiplication
<code>x /. y</code>	floating-point division
<code>int_of_float x</code>	float to int conversion
<code>float_of_int x</code>	int to float conversion

DEMO: float

# Primitive types and basic expressions

`bool`: the Booleans

The set of truth-values  $\mathbb{B} = \{\text{tt}, \text{ff}\}$

Some operators on Booleans:

<code>not</code>	logical negation
<code>&amp;&amp;</code>	logical conjunction
<code>  </code>	logical disjunction

DEMO: operators using Booleans

## Primitive types and basic expressions

bool: the Booleans

Some operations returning a Boolean

$x = y$	x is <i>equal</i> to y
$x == y$	x is <i>identical</i> to y
$x != y$	x is not identical to y
$x <> y$	x is not equal to y
$x < y$	x is less than y
$x <= y$	x is not greater than y
$x >= y$	x is not lesser than y
$x > y$	x is greater than y

DEMO: operators returning Booleans

**Remark** Distinction between `==` and `=`:

- ▶ `=` is *structural* equality (compare the structure of arguments)
- ▶ `==` is *physical* equality (check whether the arguments occupy the same memory location)
- ▶ Returns the same results on basic types: int, bool, char

Hence `e1 == e2` implies `e1 = e2`



DEMO: illustration of the difference between `=` and `==`

## Primitive types and basic expressions

char: the Characters

The set of characters  $Char \subseteq \{ 'a', 'b', \dots, 'z', 'A', \dots, 'Z' \}$

Contains also several escape sequences:

' \\ '	backslash character itself
' \' "	single-quote character
' \t '	tabulation character
' \r '	carriage return character
' \n '	new-line character
' \b '	backspace character

Conversion from int to char (and vice-versa): a char can be represented using its ASCII code:

- ▶ `Char.code`: returns the ASCII code of a character
- ▶ `Char.chr`: returns the character with the given ASCII code

From lower to upper-case and vice-versa:

- ▶ `Char.lowercase_ascii`
- ▶ `Char.uppercase_ascii`

DEMO: char

## Primitive types and basic expressions

`unit`: the singleton type

Simplest type that contains one element ()

Used by side-effect functions (every function should return a value)

**Remark** Similar to type `void` in C



**Used to create additional outputs such as printing messages or operating without a return!, e.g.,**

```
let a=(print_endline ''Hello''; 3+4);;
```

DEMO: type unit



## More on operators

Operators have a type

Constraining the arguments and results:

- ▶ order
- ▶ number

↔ the “signature of the operator”

Operators are functions, i.e., values (hence they have a type).

Consider an operator  $op$ :

arg1	<i>type</i> <sub>1</sub>		
arg2	<i>type</i> <sub>2</sub>		
...	...	⇒	
arg <sub>n</sub>	<i>type</i> <sub>n</sub>		
result	<i>type</i> <sub>r</sub>		

$type_1 \rightarrow type_2 \rightarrow \dots \rightarrow type_n \rightarrow type_r$

=

type of  $op$

### Example (Types of some operators)

$+$ :  $int \rightarrow int \rightarrow int$   
 $=$ :  $int \rightarrow int \rightarrow bool$   
 $<$ :  $int \rightarrow int \rightarrow bool$   
...

DEMO: type of operators

## More on operators

### precedences and associativity

Remainder about associativity:

- ▶ right associativity:  $a \text{ op } b \text{ op } c$  means  $a \text{ op } (b \text{ op } c)$
- ▶ left associativity:  $a \text{ op } b \text{ op } c$  means  $(a \text{ op } b) \text{ op } c$

Precedences of operators on the basic types, in **increasing order**:

Operators								Associativity
	&&							right
=	==	!=	<>	<	<=	>	>=	left
+	-	+	-					left
*	/	*	/	mod	land	lor	lxor	left
lsl	lsr	asr						right
lnot								left
;								right

DEMO: associativity

# More on Typing

## About OCaml type system

Typing is a mechanism/concept aiming at:

- ▶ avoiding errors
- ▶ favoring *abstraction*
- ▶ checking that expressions are sensible, e.g.
  - ▶ `1 + yes`
  - ▶ `true * 42`

Type checking in OCaml: **OCaml is strictly and statically typed**

- ▶ strict: no implicit conversion between types nor type coercion
- ▶ static: checking performed before execution

**Type inference:** for any expression  $e$ , OCaml (automatically and systematically) computes the type of  $e$ :

### Example (Type system on integers and floats)

- ▶ Two sets of distinct operations:
  - ▶ integers (+, -, \*)
  - ▶ floats (+., -., \*.)
- ▶ No implicit conversion between them, e.g., `1 + 0.42` yields an error

## More on Typing

About OCaml type system (ctd)

OCaml is a **safe** programming language:

- ▶ Programs never go wrong at runtime
- ▶ Easier to write correct programs: many errors are detected

**Remark** Comparison with C, Python:

- ▶ C, Python are *weakly typed*: values can be coerced
- ▶ a lot of runtime errors, e.g., segmentation-fault, bus-error, etc. . .



*“Better type-safe than sorry”*

# The language constructs

if ... then ... else ...

An expression defined using an alternative (or a conditional) control structure

```
if cond then expr1 else expr2
```

- ▶ the result is a value
- ▶ `cond` should be a Boolean expression
- ▶ `expr1` and `expr2` should be of the same type

**Remark** The else branch cannot be omitted unless the whole `expr1` is of type unit (hence the whole expression is of type unit) □

DEMO: if...then...else...

# Running your code

## Compilation vs Interpretation

Two ways to interact/evaluate/execute your code: compilation and interactive interpretation

Compiling:

- ▶ Place your program in a `.ml` file
- ▶ Use one of the compilers:
  - ▶ `ocamlc`: compiles to byte-code
  - ▶ `ocamlopt`: compiles to native machine code

Interpretation:

- ▶ Type `ocaml`
- ▶ Directly type your expression

Remark

- ▶ Byte-code is compiled faster but runs slower
- ▶ Native machine code is compiled slower but runs faster



DEMO: compiling vs interpreting, compiler options

# Summary and Assignment

## Summary

- ▶ Basic types and operations:

<b>type</b>	<b>operations</b>	<b>constants</b>
Booleans	<code>not, &amp;&amp;,   </code>	<code>true, false</code>
integers	<code>+, -, *, /, mod</code>	<code>..., -1, 0, 1, ...</code>
floats	<code>+. , -. , * . , / .</code>	<code>0.4, 12.3, 16. , 64.</code>

- ▶ `if...then...else` construct
- ▶ OCaml type system
- ▶ Compilation / Interpretation

## Assignment 1

Play with the codes seen in class! Explore yourself, and enjoy :).