

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

Academic Year 2020 - 2021

$f(x)$



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

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 (C)

```
int area_rectangle
(int width, int length) {
    return width*length;
}
```

Functional style (OCaml)

```
⋮
```

```
let area_rectangle
: (width:int) (length:int):int
  = width*length
```

```
⋮
```

What is `area_rectangle 2` ?

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

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 (C)

```
int gcd (int a, int b) {  
    int r;  
    while ((r=a%b)!=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

On examples

Example (Factorial of an integer)

Imperative style (C)

```
int fact (int n) {
    int cpt; int res;
    if (n==0) {return 1;}
    else {
        res = 1;
        for (i=1;i<=n;i++) {
            res = res *i;
        }
        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

The killing example

Example (Yielding affine functions)

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

Imperative style (C)

Functional style (OCaml)

⋮

a nightmare...

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

⋮

Le langage [O]Caml

[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.

source: "Le langage Caml" (Leroy, Weis)

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 (λ -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)



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>&&</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



Rarely used!

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> ₁		
arg2	<i>type</i> ₂		
...	...	⇒	
arg _n	<i>type</i> _n		
result	<i>type</i> _r		

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

=

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

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:

- ▶ C is *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:

type	operations	constants
Booleans	<code>not, &&, </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 :).