1 Talk to me!

Email: csl9q@virginia.edu
Office Hour: Wednesday, 3:30-4:30, lounge.
Thoughts: Please ask me anything you’d like. You will not offend me. I will not think the question is stupid. It is boring to sit in my office hour all by myself.

2 Why Section?

Wes speaks really quickly. You may get confused. Section should clarify material, assist with the homework, answer questions, and provide preparation for exams.
Feel free to email me suggestions for how you’d like this section to go, or to ask questions ahead of time (if anything in particular confused you in class, for example).

3 Functional Programming

Different programming paradigms exist: imperative, object-oriented, functional. You are probably basically familiar with the first two. Different languages follow these paradigms, some of which you’ve seen: C, C++, Java, Python, Ruby, LISP, Scheme, OCaml...

Most popular programming languages are imperative – we get stuff done by changing variables, messing around with pointers, etc. Getting the correct output at the end is sort of a ‘happy coincidence.’ This is not the only way to do things.
In functional programming, we are concerned with the evaluation of mathematical functions. The function is the first-class citizen. Importantly, functional programming avoids mutable variables and direct modification of the state. This may seem counter intuitive (and counter productive, if you’re working on PA1...). Nevertheless, functional programming is just as powerful as imperative programming. In other words, there is nothing you can do with C that you can’t do with OCAML...

Time for an illustrative example! Consider this exciting piece of code:

\[ x = x + 5 \]

Suppose this is valid code in some imperative language (say C), and some functional language (like OCAML or Haskell). This is what happens:

**C:** The value \( x + 5 \) is computed. Variable \( x \) is set equal to the result of this computation (the original value of \( x \) is replaced).

**Some Functional Language:** Infinite recursion! Symbol \( x = x + 5 = (x + 5) + 5 = ((x + 5) + 5) + 5 \), etc. Each time the interpreter sees \( x \), it treats it as a mathematical symbol. The expression diverges.

(In general, though, we use recursion (of the non-infinite variety) to get stuff done in functional programming languages.)

Often, the best way to learn is to do. Time for more examples! Let’s do some folding in OCAML:

```ocaml
mymachine:/cs415 ocaml
Objective Caml version 3.09.1

# open List (* for fold_left, map, filter, etc. *) ;;
# let odd x = x mod 2 != 0 ;;
val odd: int -> bool = <fun>
# let add x y = x + y ;;
val add : int -> int -> int = <fun>
# let sum = List.fold_left add 0 ;;
val sum : int list -> int = <fun>
# sum [1;2;3];;
- : int = 6
# sum (filter odd [1;2;3;4;5;6;7;8;9]);;
- : int = 25
# sum [1;3;5;7;9];;
- : int = 25
```
I threw in filter for free. Note that odd takes an integer $x$ and returns $\text{false}$ if its even, and $\text{true}$ otherwise. The real question is: what does filter odd [...] return?

Let's try a slightly more complicated example: cumulative sum. Rather than calculating just the sum of a list, we want a running total.

```ocaml
# let accumulator lst y = match lst with
| []    -> [y]
| (x::xs) -> (x + y)::(x::xs)
;;
val accumulator : int list -> int -> int list = <fun>
# let accumulate = List.fold_left accumulator []
;;
val accumulate : int list -> int list = <fun>
# accumulate [1;2;3;4;5]
- : int list = [15; 10; 6; 3; 1]
```

The accumulator function is a bit more complicated than add from before. This is because the accumulator keeps track of a list of sums, rather than just the one running total.

4. The COOL Programming Language

The List datatype in COOL

Make sure you don't start from scratch with your COOL implementation for PA1 – use the hint file that's provided. As it turns out, the hint file gives you a List datatype. This is useful because COOL does not have a standard library to speak of. Or arrays... Or anything else...

The List datatype looks a little odd: it is constructed of nested pairs. The pairs are implemented by cons cells, a bit of naming that is left over from the LISP and SCHEME world. In addition to Cons there is the Nil class, which denotes both the empty list (and, subsequently, the end of a nonempty list).

Question for the class: What does the class hierarchy for List look like?

The Cons class contains two references: one to a string (its element) and one to a List denoting the rest of the list. This List can either be another cons cell
(for the next element), or it can be an instance of Nil, which always ends the list.

Let's have some practice with this list datatype. Well add an append method. Instead of insert (which does an insertion sort), append will always add its element to the end of the list.

```plaintext
Class List inherits IO {
  -- ...
  append(i : String) : List { self }; 
};
Class Nil inherits List { -- Nil is an empty list
  -- ...
  append(i : String) : List { (new Cons).init(i, self) }; 
};
Class Cons inherits List { -- a Cons cell is a non-empty
  xcar : String; -- list
  xcdr : List;
  -- ...
  append(i : String) : List {
    (new Cons).init(xcar, xcdr.append(i)) 
  }; 
};
```

Note that our append method is recursive. For an empty list (consisting of just one Nil object), the method returns a new pair. The new list consists of a single pair that has a reference to the string and to the original Nil object, which now serves as the end-of-list marker.

For any nonempty list, the append method will have to traverse to the end of the list. This is done by creating a new cons cell at every step. The new cell has the same element, but its tail is updated with a recursive call to append. Eventually this call chain will reach a Nil object.

This list data structure is very inefficient. Appending an element to the end of the list takes \( O(n) \) operations, and it creates a whole new set of cons cells. Note to self: how much time would it take to prepend an element (i.e. tack it to the front of the list rather than the back)?