# Imperative programming in F#

Björn Lisper School of Innovation, Design, and Engineering Mälardalen University

bjorn.lisper@mdh.se
http://www.idt.mdh.se/~blr/

Imperative programming in F# (revised 2015-05-05)

# F# is a Multiparadigm Programming Language

So far we have used F# mainly as a functional language

But F# is really a *multi-paradigm* language

It supports both functional, imperative, and object-oriented programming

Although the focus of this course is functional programming, we will spend some time on the imperative and object-oriented parts in F#

### F# as an Imperative Language

We have already seen some limited side-effects (printf, file I/O), and sequencing

In addition, F# has:

- *mutable data* (that can be overwritten),
- *imperative control structures* (loops, conditionals), and
- *iteration over sequences, lists, and arrays* (similar to loops)

#### **Mutable Variables**

F# has mutable variables (sometimes called locations)

Their contents can be changed

Declared with keyword mutable:

```
> let mutable x = 5;;
val mutable x : int = 5
Can be of any type:
> let mutable f = fun x -> x + 1;;
```

val mutable f : (int -> int)

# **Updating Mutable Variables**

Update (assignment) is done using the "<-" operator:

```
> let mutable x = 5;;
```

```
val mutable x : int = 5
> x <- x + 1;;
val it : unit = ()
> x;;
val it : int = 6
```

### **Using the Values of Mutable Variables**

The current value of a mutable variable is returned by its name. Thus, "x" refers to the current value of x. This has some consequences. An example:

```
> let mutable x = 5;;
val mutable x : int = 5
> let y = [x;x];;
val y : int list = [5; 5]
> x <- x + 1;;
val it : unit = ()
> y;;
val it : int list = [5; 5]
```

So the list y is not changed when x is updated. This is because the current value of x was used when creating y. y is an ordinary, immutable list

#### **Mutable Records**

We have already seen (immutable) records

Like variables, record fields can be declared mutable meaning that they can be updated

An example: an account record, having three fields: an account holder field (string, immutable), an account number field (int, immutable), an amount field (int, mutable), and a field counting the number of transactions (ditto)

(See next page)

```
type Account =
  { owner : string;
    number : int;
    mutable amount : int;
    mutable no_of_trans : int }
```

#### A function to initialize an account record:

```
let account_init own no =
  { owner = own;
   number = no;
   amount = 0;
   no_of_trans = 0 }
```

A mutable field can be updated with the "<-" operator:

account.no\_of\_trans <- account.no\_of\_trans + 1</pre>

#### Example: a function that adds an amount to an account:

let add\_amount account money =
 account.amount <- account.amount + money
 account.no\_of\_trans <- account.no\_of\_trans + 1</pre>

### Mutable Reference Cells

They provide a third way to have mutable data in F#

Main difference to mutable variables is that the reference cells themselves can be referenced, not just the values held in them

```
Type 'a ref, meaning "a cell that holds a value of type 'a". Initialized with function ref : 'a -> 'a ref:
```

```
let r = ref 5
```

Creates a reference cell r : int ref that holds the value 5

r is the cell itself. Its *contents* can be accessed with the "!" prefix operator:

 $!r \implies 5$ 

Note the difference between r (the cell), and !r (the contents of the cell)

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# **Updating Reference Cells**

```
The binary infix operator (:=) : 'a ref -> 'a -> unit is used to update the contents of a reference cell
```

Creating/initializing, accessing, and updating a reference cell:

```
let r = ref 5
printf "Contents of r: %d\n" !r
r := !r - 2
printf "New contents of r: %d\n" !r
```

#### **Resulting printout:**

Contents of r: 5 New contents of r: 3

# **Defining Mutable Reference Cells**

Mutable reference cells can be defined in F# itself

They are simply records with one mutable field "contents":

```
type ref<'a> = { mutable contents: 'a }
let (!) r = r.contents
let (:=) r v = r.contents <- v
let ref v = { contents = v }</pre>
```

# Handling Reference Cells

Reference cells can be stored in data structures, and passed around. They can be accessed using the ordinary operations on data structures:

```
> let r = [ref 5;ref 3];;
val r : int ref list = [{contents = 5;}; {contents = 3;}]
> !(List.head r);;
val it : int = 5
> List.head r := !(List.head r) + 2;;
val it : unit = ()
> r;;
val it : int ref list = [{contents = 7;}; {contents = 3;}]
```

#### **Updating Reference Cells in Data Structures**

Updating the contents of a reference cell will affect data structures where it is stored:

```
> let z = ref 5;;
val z : int ref = {contents = 5;};
> let r = [z;z];;
val r : int ref list = [{contents = 5;}; {contents = 5;}]
> z := !z + 1;;
val it : unit = ()
> r;;
val it : int ref list = [{contents = 6;}; {contents = 6;}]
```

Compare this with the mutable variable example! There, the *value* of x was stored in the list. Here, it is the *cell* z that is stored

# Why Two Types of Mutable Data?

Why are there both mutable variables and ref variables in F#?

They are stored differently. Mutable variables are stored on the *stack*, ref variables on the *heap* 

This implies some restrictions on the use of mutable variables

### An Example that does not Work

A good way to use mutable data is to make them local to a function. Then the side-effects will be local, and the function is still pure. Alas, mutable variables cannot be used like this:

```
let f(x) =
  let mutable y = 0
  in let rec g(z) = if z = 0 then y else y <- y + 2;g(z-1)
      in g(x)</pre>
```

/localhome/bjorn/unison/work/GRU/F#/test/locvar.fs(5,21): error FS0407: The mutable variable 'y' is used in an invalid way. Mutable variables cannot be captured by closures. Consider eliminating this use of mutation or using a heap-allocated mutable reference cell via 'ref' and '!'.

#### Using a ref Variable Instead

A ref variable works:

```
let f(x) =
    let y = ref 0
    in let rec g(z) = if z = 0 then !y else y := !y + 2;g(z-1)
        in g(x)
```

val f : int -> int

### **Comparing Assignments in F# and C/C#/Java**

In C/C#/Java:

x = x + y/z - 17

In F#, with mutable variables:

x < -x + y/z - 17

Very similar to C/C#/Java

In F#, with reference cells:

x := !x + !y/!z - 17

The main difference is that F# makes a difference between the cell itself (x) and the value it contains (!x)

# Arrays

Arrays are mutable in F#

Array elements can be updated similarly to mutable record fields:

```
let a = [|1; 3; 5|]
a.[1] <- 7 + a.[1]
Now, a = [|1; 10; 5|]</pre>
```

# **Control Structures in F#**

F# has conditionals and loops

The conditional statement is just the usual if-then-else:

if b then s1 else s2

It first evaluates b, then s1 or s2 depending on the outcome of b

If side effects are added, then this is precisely how an imperative if-then-else should work

```
lf s : unit, then
```

```
if b then s
```

is allowed, and is then equivalent to

```
if b then s else ()
```

# While Loops

F# has a quite conventional while loop construct:

```
while b do s
```

s must have type unit, and while b do s then also has type unit

An example:

### **Simple For Loops**

The simplest kind of for loop:

for v = start to stop do s
for v = start downto stop do s

The first form increments v by 1, the second decrements it by 1

Note that  $\ensuremath{\mathrm{v}}$  cannot be updated by the code inside the loop

```
let blahonga n =
  for i = 1 to n do printf "Blahonga!\n"
```

### **Iterated For Loops**

These loops are iterated over the elements of a sequence (or list, or array). They have this general format:

for pat in sequence do s

The pattern pat is matched to each element in sequence, and s is executed for each matching in the order of the sequence

### Simple For Loops as Iterated For Loops

The simplest patterns are variables, and the simplest sequences are range expressions. With them, we can easily recreate simple for loops:

```
for i in 1 .. 10 do printf "Blahonga no. d! n" i
for i in 10 .. (-1) .. 1 do printf "Blahonga no. d! n" i
```

Also with non-unit stride:

for i in 1 .. 2 .. 10 do printf "Blahonga no. %d!\n" i for i in 10 .. (-3) .. 1 do printf "Blahonga no. %d!\n" i

#### **More General Iterated Loops**

More general use of patterns and sequences (lists, arrays) to iterate over:

```
for Some x in [Some 1; None; Some 2; Some 2] do printf "%d" x
```

Only the matching elements are selected. Printout will be "122"

```
let squares = seq { for i in 1 .. 100 -> (i,i*i) }
let sum = ref 0
let sum2 = ref 0
for (i,i2) in squares do
    sum := !sum + i
    sum2 := !sum2 + i2
printf "Sum = %d\nSquare sum = %d\n" !sum !sum2
```

This example illustrates a mix of matched variables, which stand for values, and reference variables which stand for cells that contain values

# **Concluding Example: Iteration is Recursion**

Let's finally see how we can define our own imperative control constructs through recursion

We will define a while loop construct

This shows that iteration is just a special case of recursion!

Since while is already a construct in F#, we define a function repeat that implements a repeat-until construct (like while, but executes the loop body once before making the test)

Idea: define a function repeat b s, where b is a condition (type bool), and s a loop body (executed only for the side effect)

Use sequencing to make executions of arguments happen in the right order:

- first execute s,
- then test if b is true. If yes, recursively call <code>repeat</code> again, with the same arguments b and s

If  ${\tt s}$  has side effects, and  ${\tt b}$  depends on these, the recursion can still terminate

#### **Repeat, First Attempt**

Let's implement this idea right off:

```
let rec repeat b s = s; if b then repeat b s else ()
repeat : bool -> unit -> unit
```

However, this solution has a problem! Consider this:

```
let n = ref 3
let b1 = !n > 0
let s1 = printf "n=%d\n" !n; n := !n - 1
```

If we evaluate repeat b1 s1 we get the printout "n=3" and then the evaluation goes into infinite recursion.

Why??

# Why it Went Wrong

repeat is a function.

F# uses call by value.

Therefore, the arguments get evaluated the first time repeat is called.

Subsequent argument uses will not re-evaluate them, just reuse their previous value

Therefore, the side effects of s will only occur once

b will always return the value of the first call  $\implies$  infinite recursion, if true

How can we fix this?

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### Repeat, Second Attempt

A way to have the arguments reevaluated each time they are used is to *wrap* each one into a function

A function body is reevaluated each time the function is called

This will give us the desired effect!

The functions will be given a dummy argument

We can use the value () as dummy argument

We obtain

- b : unit -> bool
- s : unit -> unit

#### **New Solution**

```
let rec repeat b s = s (); if b () then repeat b s else ()
repeat : (unit -> bool) -> (unit -> unit) -> unit
```

#### If we define

```
let n = ref 3
let b1 = (fun () -> !n > 0)
let s1 = (fun () -> printf "n=%d\n" !n; n := !n - 1)
```

And evaluate repeat b1 s1 we get (in fsi):

n=3
n=2
n=1
val it : unit = ()