Functional Programming

BY ŁUKASZ STAFINIAK

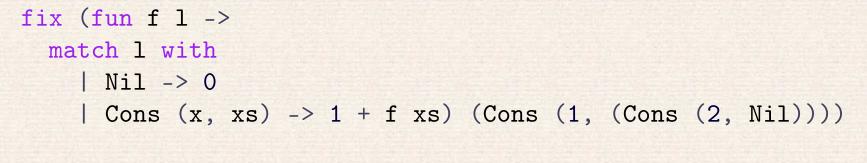
Lecture 4: Functions. Programming in untyped λ -calculus.

Introduction to Lambda Calculus Henk Barendregt, Erik Barendsen Lecture Notes on the Lambda Calculus Peter Selinger

Review: a "computation by hand" example

```
Let's compute some larger, recursive program.
Recall that we use fix instead of let rec to simplify rules for recursion.
Also remember our syntactic conventions:
fun x y -> e stands for fun x -> (fun y -> e), etc.
let rec fix f x = f (fix f) x
                                                               Preparations.
type int_list = Nil | Cons of int * int_list
                                We will evaluate (reduce) the following expression.
let length =
  fix (fun f l \rightarrow
    match 1 with
       | Nil -> 0
       | Cons (x, xs) \rightarrow 1 + f xs) in
length (Cons (1, (Cons (2, Nil))))
```

let x = v in $a \ constant a$ [x := v]



 $\texttt{fix}^2 v_1 v_2 \ \diamondsuit \ v_1 (\texttt{fix}^2 v_1) v_2$

 $\texttt{fix}^2 v_1 v_2 \ \diamondsuit \ v_1 (\texttt{fix}^2 v_1) v_2$

 $\begin{array}{cccc} (\texttt{fun } x \text{->} a) v & \rightsquigarrow & a[x := v] \\ & a_1 a_2 & \updownarrow & a_1' a_2 \end{array}$

$$\begin{array}{cccc} (\texttt{fun } x \text{-} > a) v & \rightsquigarrow & a[x := v] \\ & a_1 a_2 & \updownarrow & a_1' a_2 \end{array} \end{array}$$

$$(\texttt{fun } x \text{->} a) v \ \ \natural \ \ a[x := v]$$

$(\texttt{fun } x \rightarrow a) v \ \ a[x := v]$

match $C_1^n(v_1, ..., v_n)$ with $C_2^n(p_1, ..., p_k) \rightarrow a \mid \text{pm} \nleq \text{match } C_1^n(v_1, ..., v_n)$ with pm match $C_1^n(v_1, ..., v_n)$ with $C_2^n(p_1, ..., p_k) \rightarrow a \mid \text{pm} \nleq \text{match } C_1^n(v_1, ..., v_n)$ with pm

> match $C_1^n(v_1, ..., v_n)$ with $C_1^n(x_1, ..., x_n) \rightarrow a \mid ... \quad \ddagger \quad a[x_1 := v_1; ...; x_n := v_n]$

match $C_1^n(v_1, ..., v_n)$ with $C_1^n(x_1, ..., x_n) \rightarrow a \mid ... \quad \ddagger \quad a[x_1 := v_1; ...; x_n := v_n]$

 $\begin{array}{rcl} \texttt{fix}^2 v_1 v_2 & \rightsquigarrow & v_1 \left(\texttt{fix}^2 v_1\right) v_2 \\ a_1 a_2 & \updownarrow & a_1 a_2' \end{array}$

$\begin{array}{rcl} \texttt{fix}^2 v_1 v_2 & \rightsquigarrow & v_1 \left(\texttt{fix}^2 v_1\right) v_2 \\ a_1 a_2 & \updownarrow & a_1 a_2' \end{array}$

 $(\texttt{fun } x \text{->} a) v \iff a[x := v] \\ a_1 a_2 \ \ \ a_1 a_2'$

$$\begin{array}{cccc} (\texttt{fun } x \text{-} > a) v & \rightsquigarrow & a[x := v] \\ & a_1 a_2 & \updownarrow & a_1 a_2' \end{array}$$

 $\begin{array}{cccc} (\texttt{fun} \ x \text{->} a) \, v & \rightsquigarrow & a[x := v] \\ & a_1 \, a_2 & \updownarrow & a_1 \, a_2' \end{array}$

$$\begin{array}{cccc} (\texttt{fun} \ x \text{->} a) \, v & \rightsquigarrow & a[x := v] \\ & a_1 \, a_2 & \updownarrow & a_1 \, a_2' \end{array}$$

match
$$C_1^n(v_1, ..., v_n)$$
 with
 $C_2^n(p_1, ..., p_k)$ -> $a \mid pm \rightsquigarrow match C_1^n(v_1, ..., v_n)$
with pm
 $a_1 a_2 \ \ a_1 a_2'$

match $C_1^n(v_1, ..., v_n)$ with $C_2^n(p_1, ..., p_k) \rightarrow a \mid pm \rightsquigarrow \text{match } C_1^n(v_1, ..., v_n)$ with pm

 $a_1 a_2 \ddagger a_1 a'_2$

> match $C_1^n(v_1, ..., v_n)$ with $C_1^n(x_1, ..., x_n) \rightarrow a \mid ... \quad \ddagger \quad a[x_1 := v_1; ...; x_n := v_n]$

match
$$C_1^n(v_1, ..., v_n)$$
 with
 $C_1^n(x_1, ..., x_n) \rightarrow a \mid ... \implies a[x_1 := v_1; ...; x_n := v_n]$
 $a_1 a_2 \quad \ \ a_1 a_2'$

 $\begin{array}{cccc} \texttt{fix}^2 v_1 v_2 & \rightsquigarrow & v_1 \, (\texttt{fix}^2 v_1) \, v_2 \\ a_1 a_2 & \updownarrow & a_1 \, a_2' \\ a_1 a_2 & \updownarrow & a_1 \, a_2' \end{array}$

$$\begin{array}{cccc} \texttt{fix}^2 v_1 v_2 & \rightsquigarrow & v_1 \, (\texttt{fix}^2 \, v_1) \, v_2 \\ a_1 \, a_2 & \updownarrow & a_1 \, a_2' \\ a_1 \, a_2 & \updownarrow & a_1 \, a_2' \end{array}$$

$$\begin{array}{ccccc} (\texttt{fun} \ x \text{->} a) \, v & \rightsquigarrow & a[x := v] \\ & a_1 \, a_2 & \updownarrow & a_1 \, a_2' \\ & a_1 \, a_2 & \updownarrow & a_1 \, a_2' \end{array}$$

$$\begin{array}{rcl} \operatorname{fun} & x \text{->} a) v & \rightsquigarrow & a[x := v] \\ & a_1 a_2 & \updownarrow & a_1 a_2' \\ & a_1 a_2 & \updownarrow & a_1 a_2' \end{array}$$

$$(\texttt{fun } x \text{->} a) v \iff a | x := v$$
$$a_1 a_2 \ \ \begin{array}{c} \downarrow \\ a_1 a_2 \\ a_1 a_2 \end{array} \begin{array}{c} \downarrow \\ a_1 a_2 \\ \end{array} \begin{array}{c} a_1 a_2' \\ a_1 a_2' \end{array}$$

$$\begin{array}{cccc} \left[\texttt{fun } x \text{-} > a \right] v & \rightsquigarrow & a[x := v] \\ & a_1 a_2 & \updownarrow & a_1 a_2' \\ & a_1 a_2 & \updownarrow & a_1 a_2' \\ \end{array}$$

match
$$C_1^n(v_1, ..., v_n)$$
 with
 $C_1^n(x_1, ..., x_n) \rightarrow a \mid ... \implies a[x_1 := v_1; ...; x_n := v_n]$
 $a_1 a_2 \ \ddagger a_1 a_2'$
 $a_1 a_2 \ \ddagger a_1 a_2'$

match
$$C_1^n(v_1, ..., v_n)$$
 with
 $C_1^n(x_1, ..., x_n) \rightarrow a \mid ... \implies a[x_1 := v_1; ...; x_n := v_n]$
 $a_1 a_2 \ \ddagger a_1 a'_2$
 $a_1 a_2 \ \ddagger a_1 a'_2$

1 + (1 + 0)

1 + 1

2

Language and rules of the untyped λ -calculus

- First, let's forget about types.
- Next, let's introduce a shortcut:

• We write $\lambda x.a$ for fun $x \rightarrow a$, $\lambda x y.a$ for fun $x y \rightarrow a$, etc.

- Let's forget about all other constructions, only fun and variables.
- The real λ -calculus has a more general reduction:

$$(\texttt{fun } x \rightarrow a_1) a_2 \ \leadsto \ a_1[x := a_2]$$

(called β -reduction) and uses bound variable renaming (called α -conversion), or some other trick, to avoid variable capture. But let's not overcomplicate things.

- We will look into the β -reduction rule in the **laziness** lecture.
- Why is β -reduction more general than the rule we use?

Booleans

- Alonzo Church introduced λ -calculus to encode logic.
- There are multiple ways to encode various sorts of data in λ-calculus. Not all of them make sense in a typed setting, i.e. the straightforward encode/decode functions do not type-check for them.
- Define c_true= $\lambda x y.x$ and c_false= $\lambda x y.y$.
- Define $c_and = \lambda x y \cdot x y c_{false}$. Check that it works!
 - I.e. that c_and c_true c_true = c_true, otherwise c_and a b = c_false.

Define c_or and c_not yourself!

If-then-else and pairs

• We will just use the OCaml syntax from now.

let if_then_else = fun b -> b Booleans select the argument!

Remember to play with the functions in the toplevel.

let c_pair m n = fun x -> x m n V
let c_first = fun p -> p c_true by passing
let c_second = fun p -> p c_false Chee

We couple things by passing them together. Check that it works!

```
let encode_pair enc_fst enc_snd (a, b) =
   c_pair (enc_fst a) (enc_snd b)
let decode_pair de_fst de_snd c = c (fun x y -> de_fst x, de_snd y)
let decode_bool_pair c = decode_pair decode_bool decode_bool c
```

• We can define larger tuples in the same manner:

let c_triple l m n = fun x -> x l m n

Pair-encoded natural numbers

• Our first encoding of natural numbers is as the depth of nested pairs whose rightmost leaf is $\lambda x.x$ and whose left elements are c_false.

let pn0 = fun x -> xStart with the identity function.let pn_succ n = c_pair c_false nStack another pair.

let pn_pred = fun x -> x c_false [Explain these functions.]
let pn_is_zero = fun x -> x c_true

We program in untyped lambda calculus as an exercise, and we need encoding / decoding to verify our exercises, so using "magic" for encoding / decoding is "fair game".

let rec encode_pnat n = We use Obj.magic to forget types. if n <= 0 then Obj.magic pn0 else pn_succ (Obj.magic (encode_pnat (n-1))) Disregarding types, let rec decode_pnat pn = these functions are straightforward! if decode_bool (pn_is_zero pn) then 0 else 1 + decode_pnat (pn_pred (Obj.magic pn))

Church numerals (natural numbers in Ch. enc.)

 Do you remember our function power f n? We will use its variant for a different representation of numbers:

let cn0 = fun f x -> x
let cn1 = fun f x -> f x
let cn2 = fun f x -> f (f x)
let cn3 = fun f x -> f (f (f x))

The same as c_false. Behaves like identity.

• This is the original Alonzo Church encoding.

let $cn_succ = fun n f x \rightarrow f (n f x)$

- Define addition, multiplication, comparing to zero, and the predecesor function "-1" for Church numerals.
- Turns out even Alozno Church couldn't define predecesor right away! But try to make some progress before you turn to the next slide.
 - His student Stephen Kleene found it.

```
let rec encode cnat n f =
  if n \le 0 then (fun x -> x) else f -| encode_cnat (n-1) f
let decode_cnat n = n ((+) 1) 0
let cn7 f x = encode_cnat 7 f x
                                            We need to \eta-expand these definitions
let cn13 f x = encode_cnat 13 f x
                                                         for type-system reasons.
                                              (Because OCaml allows side-effects.)
let cn_add = fun n m f x \rightarrow n f (m f x)
                                                       Put n of f in front.
let cn_mult = fun n m f \rightarrow n (m f)
                                                                 Repeat n times
                                                          putting m of f in front.
let cn_prev n =
  fun f x \rightarrow
                                            This is the "Church numeral signature".
                                          The only thing we have is an n-step loop.
     n
       (fun g v \rightarrow v (g f))
                                                  We need sth that operates on f.
```

We've build a "machine" not results - start the machine.

We need to ignore the innermost step.

cn_is_zero left as an exercise.

(fun z ->x)

(fun z ->z)

decode_cnat (cn_prev cn3)

```
(cn_prev cn3) ((+) 1) 0
```

```
(fun f x ->
     cn3
        (fun g v -> v (g f))
        (fun z->x)
        (fun z->z)) ((+) 1) 0
```

\$

3

3

```
((fun f x -> f (f (f x)))
    (fun g v -> v (g ((+) 1)))
    (fun z->0)
    (fun z->z))
```

((fun z->z) (((fun g v -> v (g ((+) 1))) ((fun g v -> v (g ((+) 1))) (fun z->0)))) ((+) 1)))

\$

3

 $(fun g v \rightarrow v (g ((+) 1)))$ $((fun g v \rightarrow v (g ((+) 1)))$ $(fun z \rightarrow 0)) ((+) 1)$

25

((+) 1) ((fun g v -> v (g ((+) 1))) (fun z->0) ((+) 1))

\$

3

3

3

((+) 1) (((+) 1) ((fun z -> 0) ((+) 1)))

((+) 1) (((+) 1) (0))

((+) 1) 1

Recursion: Fixpoint Combinator

• Turing's fixpoint combinator: $\Theta = (\lambda x y. y (x x y)) (\lambda x y. y (x x y))$

$$N = \Theta F$$

= $(\lambda x y. y (x x y)) (\lambda x y. y (x x y)) F$
= $\rightarrow \rightarrow F ((\lambda x y. y (x x y)) (\lambda x y. y (x x y)) F)$
= $F (\Theta F) = FN$

• Curry's fixpoint combinator: $\mathbf{Y} = \lambda f.(\lambda x.f(xx))(\lambda x.f(xx))$

$$N = YF$$

= $(\lambda f.(\lambda x.f(xx))(\lambda x.f(xx)))F$
= $(\lambda x.F(xx))(\lambda x.F(xx))$
= $F((\lambda x.F(xx))(\lambda x.F(xx)))$
= $F((\lambda f.(\lambda x.f(xx))(\lambda x.f(xx)))F$
= $F(YF) = FN$

• Call-by-value fixpoint combinator: $\lambda f' (\lambda f x. f'(f f) x) (\lambda f x. f'(f f) x)$

$$N = \operatorname{fix} F$$

= $(\lambda f'.(\lambda fx.f'(ff)x)(\lambda fx.f'(ff)x))F$
= $\rightarrow (\lambda fx.F(ff)x)(\lambda fx.F(ff)x)$
= $\rightarrow \lambda x.F((ff)x)(\lambda fx.F(ff)x))x$
= $\leftarrow \lambda x.F((\lambda f'.(\lambda fx.f'(ff)x)(\lambda fx.f'(ff)x))F)x$
= $\lambda x.F(\operatorname{fix} F)x = \lambda x.FNx$
= ηFN

- The λ -terms we have seen above are **fixpoint combinators** means inside λ -calculus to perform recursion.
- What is the problem with the first two combinators?

 $\begin{array}{l} \Theta F & \leadsto & F\left(\left(\lambda xy.y\left(xxy\right)\right)\left(\lambda xy.y\left(xxy\right)\right)F\right) \\ & \leadsto & F\left(F\left(\left(\lambda xy.y\left(xxy\right)\right)\left(\lambda xy.y\left(xxy\right)\right)F\right)\right) \\ & \leadsto & F\left(F\left(F\left(\left(\lambda xy.y\left(xxy\right)\right)\left(\lambda xy.y\left(xxy\right)\right)F\right)\right)\right) \\ & \leadsto & \ldots \end{array}$

- Recall the distinction between *expressions* and *values* from the previous lecture *Computation*.
- The reduction rule for λ -calculus is just meant to determine which expressions are considered "equal" it is highly *non-deterministic*, while on a computer, computation needs to go one way or another.
- Using the general reduction rule of λ -calculus, for a recursive definition, it is always possible to find an infinite reduction sequence (which means that you couldn't complain when a nasty λ -calculus compiler generates infinite loops for all recursive definitions).

• Why?

Therefore, we need more specific rules. For example, most languages use
 (fun x->a) v → a[x := v], which is called *call-by-value*, or eager computation (because the program *eagerly* computes the arguments before starting to compute the function). (It's exactly the rule we introduced in *Computation* lecture.)

What happens with call-by-value fixpoint combinator?

 $\begin{aligned} & \text{fix } F & \rightsquigarrow & \left(\lambda f x.F\left(ff\right)x\right)\left(\lambda f x.F\left(ff\right)x\right) \\ & & \rightsquigarrow & \lambda x.F\left(\left(\lambda f x.F\left(ff\right)x\right)\left(\lambda f x.F\left(ff\right)x\right)\right)x \end{aligned}$

Voila – if we use $(fun \ x \rightarrow a) v \rightsquigarrow a[x := v]$ as the rule rather than $(fun \ x \rightarrow a_1) a_2 \rightsquigarrow a_1[x := a_2]$, the computation stops. Let's compute the function on some input:

- $\begin{aligned} & \text{fix } Fv \iff (\lambda fx.F(ff)x) (\lambda fx.F(ff)x) v \\ & \rightsquigarrow (\lambda x.F((\lambda fx.F(ff)x) (\lambda fx.F(ff)x)) x) v \\ & \rightsquigarrow F((\lambda fx.F(ff)x) (\lambda fx.F(ff)x)) v \\ & \rightsquigarrow F(\lambda x.F((ff)x) (\lambda fx.F(ff)x)) x) v \\ & \rightsquigarrow F(\lambda x.F((\lambda fx.F(ff)x) (\lambda fx.F(ff)x)) x) v \\ & \longleftarrow depends on F \end{aligned}$
 - \rightsquigarrow depends on F

- Why the name *fixpoint*? If you look at our derivations, you'll see that they show what in math can be written as x = f(x). Such values x are called fixpoints of f. An arithmetic function can have several fixpoints, for example $f(x) = x^2$ (which xes are fixpoints?) or no fixpoints, for example f(x) = x + 1.
- When you define a function (or another object) by recursion, it has very similar meaning: there is a name that is on both sides of =.
- In λ -calculus, there are functions like Θ and Y, that take *any* function as an argument, and return its fixpoint.
- We turn a specification of a recursive object into a definition, by solving it with respect to the recurring name: deriving x = f(x) where x is the recurring name. We then have x = fix(f).

Let's walk through it for the factorial function (we omit the prefix cn_ – could be pn_ if pn1 was used instead of cn1 – for numeric functions, and we shorten if_then_else into if_t_e):

$$\begin{aligned} \texttt{fact} n &= \texttt{if_t_e}(\texttt{is_zero} n) \texttt{cn1}(\texttt{mult} n\,(\texttt{fact}(\texttt{pred} n))) \\ \texttt{fact} &= \lambda n.\texttt{if_t_e}(\texttt{is_zero} n)\,\texttt{cn1}(\texttt{mult} n\,(\texttt{fact}(\texttt{pred} n))) \\ \texttt{fact} &= (\lambda fn.\texttt{if_t_e}(\texttt{is_zero} n)\,\texttt{cn1}(\texttt{mult} n\,(f\,(\texttt{pred} n))))\,\texttt{fact} \\ \texttt{fact} &= \texttt{fix}(\lambda fn.\texttt{if_t_e}(\texttt{is_zero} n)\,\texttt{cn1}(\texttt{mult} n\,(f\,(\texttt{pred} n)))) \end{aligned}$$

The last specification is a valid definition: we just give a name to a (ground, a.k.a. closed) expression.

- We have seen how fix works already!
 - Compute fact cn2.
- What does fix (fun x -> cn_succ x) mean?

Encoding of Lists and Trees

- A list is either empty, which we often call Empty or Nil, or it consists of an element followed by another list (called "tail"), the other case often called Cons.
- Define $nil = \lambda x y. y$ and $cons HT = \lambda x y. x HT$.
- Add numbers stored inside a list:

 $addlist l = l (\lambda h t.cn_add h (addlist t)) cn0$

To make a proper definition, we need to apply fix to the solution of above equation.

 $\texttt{addlist} = \operatorname{fix} \left(\lambda fl.l \left(\lambda ht. \texttt{cn}_\texttt{add} h \left(ft \right) \right) \texttt{cn0} \right)$

- For trees, let's use a different form of binary trees than so far: instead of keeping elements in inner nodes, we will keep elements in leaves.
- Define leaf $n = \lambda x y . x n$ and node $LR = \lambda x y . y LR$.
- Add numbers stored inside a tree:

addtree $t = t (\lambda n.n) (\lambda l r.cn_add (addtree l) (addtree r))$

and, in solved form:

 $\texttt{addtree} = \operatorname{fix} \left(\lambda ft.t \left(\lambda n.n \right) \left(\lambda lr. \texttt{cn}_\texttt{add} \left(fl \right) \left(fr \right) \right) \right)$

```
let nil = fun x y \rightarrow y
let cons h t = fun x y \rightarrow x h t
let addlist l =
  fix (fun f l \rightarrow l (fun h t \rightarrow cn_add h (f t)) cn0) l
;;
decode_cnat
  (addlist (cons cn1 (cons cn2 (cons cn7 nil))));;
let leaf n = fun x y \rightarrow x n
let node l r = fun x y \rightarrow y l r
let addtree t =
  fix (fun f t \rightarrow
    t (fun n \rightarrow n) (fun l r \rightarrow cn_add (f l) (f r))
  ) t
;;
decode_cnat
  (addtree (node (node (leaf cn3) (leaf cn7))
                 (leaf cn1)));;
```

- Observe a regularity: when we encode a variant type with n variants, for each variant we define a function that takes n arguments.
- If the kth variant C_k has m_k parameters, then the function c_k that encodes it will have the form:

 $C_k(v_1, ..., v_{m_k}) \sim c_k v_1 \dots v_{m_k} = \lambda x_1 \dots x_n . x_k v_1 \dots v_{m_k}$

• The encoded variants serve as a shallow pattern matching with guaranteed exhaustiveness: *k*th argument corresponds to *k*th branch of pattern matching.

Looping Recursion

• Let's come back to numbers defined as lengths lists and define addition:

```
let pn_add m n =
  fix (fun f m n ->
     if_then_else (pn_is_zero m)
        n (pn_succ (f (pn_pred m) n))
  ) m n;;
decode_pnat (pn_add pn3 pn3);;
```

- Oops... OCaml says: Stack overflow during evaluation (looping recursion?).
- What is wrong? Nothing as far as λ-calculus is concerned. But OCaml and F# always compute arguments before calling a function. By definition of fix, f corresponds to recursively calling pn_add. Therefore, (pn_succ (f (pn_pred m) n)) will be called regardless of what (pn_is_zero m) returns!
- Why addlist and addtree work?

- addlist and addtree work because their recursive calls are "guarded" by corresponding fun. What is inside of fun is not computed immediately, only when the function is applied to argument(s).
- To avoid looping recursion, you need to guard all recursive calls. Besides putting them inside fun, in OCaml or F# you can also put them in branches of a match clause, as long as one of the branches does not have unguarded recursive calls!

- The trick to use with functions like if_then_else, is to guard their arguments with fun x ->, where x is not used, and apply the *result* of if_then_else to some dummy value.
 - In OCaml or F# we would guard by fun () ->, and then apply to
 (), but we do not have datatypes like unit in λ-calculus.

```
let pn_add m n =
  fix (fun f m n ->
     (if_then_else (pn_is_zero m)
        (fun x -> n) (fun x -> pn_succ (f (pn_pred m) n)))
        id
    ) m n;;
decode_pnat (pn_add pn3 pn3);;
decode_pnat (pn_add pn3 pn7);;
```

In-class Work and Homework

- Define (implement) and verify:
- 1. c_or and c_not;
- 2. exponentiation for Church numerals;
- 3. is-zero predicate for Church numerals;
- 4. even-number predicate for Church numerals;
- 5. multiplication for pair-encoded natural numbers;
- 6. factorial n! for pair-encoded natural numbers.
- 7. Construct λ -terms m_0, m_1, \dots such that for all n one has:

 $m_0 = x$ $m_{n+1} = m_{n+2}m_n$

(where equality is after performing β -reductions).

- 8. Define (implement) and verify a function computing: the length of a list (in Church numerals);
- 9. cn_max maximum of two Church numerals;
- 10. the depth of a tree (in Church numerals).
- 11. Representing side-effects as an explicitly "passed around" state value, write combinators that represent the imperative constructs:

a.for.to...

- b.for..downto...
- c.while..do...
- d. do ...while ...
- e.repeat..until...

Rather than writing a λ -term using the encodings that we've learnt, just implement the functions in OCaml / F#, using built-in int and bool types. You can use let rec instead of fix.

- For example, in exercise (a), write a function let rec for_to f beg_i end_i s =... where f takes arguments i ranging from beg_i to end_i, state s at given step, and returns state s at next step; the for_to function returns the state after the last step.
- And in exercise (c), write a function let rec while_do p f s =... where both p and f take state s at given step, and if p s returns true, then f s is computed to obtain state at next step; the while_do function returns the state after the last step.

Do not use the imperative features of OCaml and F#, we will not even cover them in this course!

Despite we will not cover them, it is instructive to see the implementation using the imperative features, to better understand what is actually required of a solution to the last exercise.

```
a) let for_to f beg_i end_i s =
    let s = ref s in
    for i = beg_i to end_i do
        s := f i !s
    done;
    !s
b) let for_downto f beg_i end_i s =
    let s = ref s in
    for i = beg_i downto end_i do
        s := f i !s
    done;
    !s
```

```
c) let while_do p f s =
    let s = ref s in
    while p !s do
    s := f !s
    done;
    !s
d) let do_while p f s =
    let s = ref (f s) in
    while p !s do
      s := f !s
    done;
    !s
e) let repeat_until p f s =
    let s = ref (f s) in
    while not (p !s) do
    s := f !s
    done;
    !s
```