

1. Distinctive Features of Functional Programming Languages

Functional programming (FP) is a paradigm where programs are built by composing pure functions.

Key Features:

- **Pure Functions:** No side effects, output depends only on input.
- **Immutability:** Data cannot be changed once created.
- **First-class functions:** Functions can be stored in variables, passed as arguments, or returned.
- **Declarative style:** Focuses on *what* to solve, not *how* to solve.
- **Recursion instead of loops:** Repeated tasks are handled via recursive functions.
- **Lazy evaluation:** Expressions are evaluated only when needed.
- **Higher-order functions:** Functions that take other functions as arguments or return them.

JS Example (pure vs impure)

// Pure function

```
function add(a, b){  
    return a + b; // Always same output for same input  
}
```

// Impure function (depends on external state)

```
let counter = 0;  
  
function increase(){  
    counter++; // Side effect  
  
    return counter;  
}
```

2. Functional Programming in Imperative Languages

- Even though JavaScript is multi-paradigm (supports OOP + imperative + functional), we can write in FP style.
- Imperative style changes state step by step, while FP style avoids mutation.

JS Example

// Imperative style

```
let nums = [1, 2, 3, 4];
```

```
let squares1 = [];

for (let i = 0; i < nums.length; i++) {
    squares1.push(nums[i] * nums[i]);
}

}
```

// Functional style

```
let squares2 = nums.map(x => x * x);
```

```
console.log(squares1); // [1, 4, 9, 16]
```

```
console.log(squares2); // [1, 4, 9, 16]
```

3. Recursion

- A function that calls itself until a base condition is met.
- Used instead of loops in FP.

 JS Example

// Factorial using recursion

```
function fact(n) {
    if (n === 0) return 1;
    return n * fact(n - 1);
}
```

```
console.log(fact(5)); // 120
```

4. Tail Recursion

- Special form of recursion where the recursive call is the last operation.
- Helps optimize memory (no need to keep previous stack frames).

 JS Example

```
function factTail(n, acc = 1) {
    if (n === 0) return acc;
    return factTail(n - 1, n * acc); // tail recursive
}
```

```
console.log(factTail(5)); // 120
```

5. Higher Order Functions (HOFs)

- Functions that take other functions as arguments or return them.

JS Example

```
// Map, Filter, Reduce (common HOFs)
```

```
let nums = [1, 2, 3, 4, 5];
```

```
// map
```

```
let doubled = nums.map(x => x * 2);
```

```
// filter
```

```
let evens = nums.filter(x => x % 2 === 0);
```

```
console.log(doubled); // [2, 4, 6, 8, 10]
```

```
console.log(evens); // [2, 4]
```

What is Lazy Evaluation?

- **Lazy Evaluation** (also called *call-by-need*) is a strategy where **expressions are not evaluated until their values are actually required**.
 - Instead of computing everything immediately (*eager evaluation*), the program delays computation, which can improve efficiency.
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2. Key Points

1. **Avoids unnecessary computation:** If a value is never used, it is never computed.
 2. **Supports infinite data structures:** Lazy evaluation allows working with potentially infinite lists (streams).
 3. **Improves performance:** Saves time if not all branches of a program are needed.
 4. **Memoization:** Once computed, results are stored, so repeated requests don't recompute.
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4. Example in Haskell (True Lazy Language)

```
-- Infinite list of natural numbers  
naturals = [1..]  
  
-- Take first 5 numbers (Haskell computes only as needed)  
main = print (take 5 naturals) -- [1,2,3,4,5]  
  
◆ Here, [1..] is an infinite list, but Haskell only computes first 5 elements because of lazy evaluation.
```

Types in Functional Programming

1. What are Types?

- A **type** defines the *kind of data* a value or function can hold or operate on.
- In Functional Programming (FP), types ensure:
 - **Correctness:** Functions only work on valid data.
 - **Predictability:** Behavior is fixed by type.
 - **Safety:** Many errors are caught at compile-time (in strongly typed FP languages).

👉 Example: An Int type only stores integers, a Bool only stores True or False.

2. Importance of Types in FP

1. **Express program behavior** clearly.
 2. **Avoid runtime errors** by catching mismatches at compile time.
 3. **Encourage modular design** (functions defined by type signatures).
 4. **Enable polymorphism** (general functions that work for multiple types).
 5. **Basis for reasoning** in lambda calculus & proofs.
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3. Type Systems in FP

(a) Primitive Types

Basic data types like Int, Float, Char, Bool.

✓ Haskell Example

```
x :: Int
```

```
x = 10
```

```
y :: Bool
```

```
y = True
```

JavaScript (dynamic, no explicit types)

```
let x = 10; // number
```

```
let y = true; // boolean
```

(b) Function Types

Functions themselves have types $\rightarrow (\text{InputType} \rightarrow \text{OutputType})$.

Haskell Example

```
add :: Int -> Int -> Int
```

```
add x y = x + y
```

JavaScript Example

```
const add = (x, y) => x + y; // works for numbers
```

(c) Composite Types

- **Tuples:** Group multiple values of different types.
- **Lists:** Ordered collection of same type.

Haskell Example

```
pair :: (Int, String)
```

```
pair = (10, "hello")
```

```
nums :: [Int]
```

```
nums = [1, 2, 3, 4]
```

JavaScript Example

```
let pair = [10, "hello"]; // tuple-like (array with mixed types)
```

```
let nums = [1, 2, 3, 4]; // array
```

(d) Polymorphic Types

A function that works for *any type*.

Haskell Example

```
-- works for any type 'a'
```

```
identity :: a -> a
```

```
identity x = x
```

JavaScript Example

```
const identity = x => x; // works for any type
```

```
console.log(identity(5)); // 5
```

```
console.log(identity("hi")); // hi
```

(e) Algebraic Data Types (ADTs)

Types built using combinations of other types.

- **Sum types** (either/or)
- **Product types** (and)

Haskell Example

```
-- Sum type (can be Int OR Bool)
```

```
data MyType = number Int | truth Bool
```

```
-- Product type (record with both fields)
```

```
data Person = Person String Int
```

 JavaScript doesn't have ADTs directly, but objects/union types in TypeScript simulate them.

(f) Type Inference

- Some FP languages (like Haskell, ML) **automatically deduce types** even if not written.

Haskell Example

```
double x = 2 * x -- compiler infers: Int -> Int (if used with Ints)
```

4. Strong vs Weak Typing in FP

- **Haskell:** Strongly typed, static → all types checked before execution.

- **JavaScript**: Weakly typed, dynamic → types decided at runtime.

Example in JS (danger):

```
console.log(5 + "5"); // "55" (string concatenation, not numeric addition)
```

5. Types in Lambda Calculus (Mathematical FP Basis)

- **Simply Typed Lambda Calculus** introduces types to pure λ -expressions.
 - Example:
 - Identity: $\lambda x: \text{Int}. x$
 - Function: $(\lambda x: \text{Int}. x+1) : \text{Int} \rightarrow \text{Int}$
-

6. Advantages of Types in FP

1. Prevents errors early.
2. Helps in reasoning and proofs.
3. Enables abstraction & polymorphism.
4. Guides program design.

Mathematics of Functional Programming: Lambda Calculus

1. Introduction

- **Lambda Calculus (λ -calculus)** is a **formal system in mathematical logic** developed by Alonzo Church (1930s).
 - It is the **theoretical foundation** of Functional Programming (FP).
 - In λ -calculus, *everything is a function*.
 - FP languages like **Haskell** are based directly on λ -calculus principles.
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2. Components of Lambda Calculus

Lambda calculus has only **three constructs**:

1. **Variables** → placeholders for values.
Example: x, y, z.
2. **Abstraction** → function definition using λ .

- Syntax: $\lambda x. \text{expression}$
- Meaning: "a function of x that returns expression".

Example: $\lambda x. x+1$ means a function that adds 1 to its input.

3. Application → applying a function to an argument.

- Syntax: $(f a)$
- Meaning: apply function f to argument a.

Example: $(\lambda x. x+1) 5 \rightarrow 6$.

3. Rules of Lambda Calculus

1. α -conversion (Renaming variables)

- Variables can be renamed to avoid clashes.
- Example: $\lambda x. x+1 \equiv \lambda y. y+1$.

2. β -reduction (Function application)

- Applying a function to an argument by substituting the variable with the value.
- Example: $(\lambda x. x*2) 3 \rightarrow 6$.

3. η -conversion (Extensionality)

- A function $\lambda x. f x$ is equivalent to f if x is not free in f .
 - Example: $\lambda x. (\text{add } x) \equiv \text{add}$.
-

4. Examples of Lambda Calculus

Example 1: Identity Function

-- Haskell

identity x = x

-- JS

const identity = x => x;

console.log(identity(5)); // 5

λ -calculus: $\lambda x. x$

Example 2: Increment Function

inc x = x + 1

λ -calculus: $\lambda x. x+1$

Application: $(\lambda x. x+1) 5 \rightarrow 6$

Example 3: Function Composition

compose $f g x = f(g x)$

-- JS

```
const compose = (f, g) => x => f(g(x));
```

λ -calculus: $\lambda f. \lambda g. \lambda x. f(g x)$

Example 4: Boolean Logic in λ -calculus

- TRUE: $\lambda x. \lambda y. x$
- FALSE: $\lambda x. \lambda y. y$
- AND: $\lambda p. \lambda q. p q p$

-- Haskell

```
true x y = x
```

```
false x y = y
```

A **lambda expression** in Haskell is an **anonymous function** (a function without a name). It is written using a **backslash (\)** followed by parameters, an arrow (->), and then the function body.

General Syntax:

\x y -> expression

- \ means *lambda (anonymous function)*.
 - x y are the parameters.
 - -> separates parameters from the function body.
 - expression is the computation.
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Example: Lambda function to add two numbers

```
main :: IO ()  
main = do  
    let add = \x y -> x + y -- lambda function  
    print (add 5 7)
```

A **side effect** happens when a function does something **other than just returning a value**.

Examples:

- Modifying a variable outside its scope

JavaScript Examples

✖ Impure Function (with side effects)

```
let count = 0; // global variable  
  
function increment() {  
    count++; // modifies external state (side effect)  
    console.log("Count is now:", count); // side effect (printing)  
    return count;  
}
```

```
increment(); // Count is now: 1
```

```
increment(); // Count is now: 2
```

- Changes count (global state).
 - Prints to console (another side effect).
 - Same input → different results.
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Pure Function (no side effects)

```
function add(a, b) {  
  return a + b; // only depends on inputs  
}
```

```
console.log(add(3, 4)); // 7
```

```
console.log(add(3, 4)); // 7 (always same)
```

- No external state change.
- No printing/logging.
- Always predictable.

◆ **First-Class Functions**

In JavaScript, **functions are treated as first-class citizens**.

That means:

1. You can **store functions in variables**.
2. You can **pass functions as arguments** to other functions.
3. You can **return functions** from other functions.
4. You can **store them in data structures** (like arrays, objects).

Example 1: Store in a variable

```
const greet = function(name) {  
  return "Hello, " + name;  
};
```

```
console.log(greet("Bablu")); // Hello, Bablu
```

Here greet is a variable holding a function.

👉 Example 2: Pass function as argument

```
function callFunction(fn, value) {  
    return fn(value);  
}
```

```
function square(x) {  
    return x * x;  
}
```

```
console.log(callFunction(square, 5)); // 25
```

Here square function is **passed as an argument** to another function.

👉 Example 3: Return function from another function

```
function multiplier(factor) {  
    return function(x) {  
        return x * factor;  
    };  
}
```

```
const double = multiplier(2);
```

```
const triple = multiplier(3);
```

```
console.log(double(5)); // 10
```

```
console.log(triple(5)); // 15
```

Here multiplier **returns another function**.

👉 Example 4: Store functions in data structures

```
const operations = [
```

```
(a, b) => a + b,
```

```
(a, b) => a - b,
```

```
(a, b) => a * b
```

```
];
```

```
console.log(operations[0](5, 3)); // 8 (addition)
```

```
console.log(operations[1](5, 3)); // 2 (subtraction)
```

```
console.log(operations[2](5, 3)); // 15 (multiplication)
```

 This proves that functions in JS are **first-class** (treated like any other value).

◆ Higher-Order Functions (HOFs)

A **Higher-Order Function** is a function that:

1. **Takes one or more functions as arguments, OR**
2. **Returns another function.**

All higher-order functions are possible **because functions are first-class**.

👉 Example 1: Function taking another function

```
function applyOperation(a, b, operation) {  
  return operation(a, b);  
}
```

```
const add = (x, y) => x + y;
```

```
const multiply = (x, y) => x * y;
```

```
console.log(applyOperation(4, 5, add)); // 9
```

```
console.log(applyOperation(4, 5, multiply)); // 20
```

Here `applyOperation` is a **higher-order function** since it takes another function (`add` or `multiply`) as input.

👉 Example 2: Function returning a function

```
function power(exponent) {
```

```
return function(base) {  
    return base ** exponent;  
};  
}
```

```
const square = power(2);  
const cube = power(3);
```

```
console.log(square(5)); // 25  
console.log(cube(2)); // 8
```

Here power is a **higher-order function** since it **returns another function**.

👉 Example 3: Built-in Higher-Order Functions in JS

JavaScript arrays come with many HOFs: map, filter, reduce, forEach, etc.

```
const numbers = [1, 2, 3, 4, 5];
```

```
// map → applies function to each element  
const squares = numbers.map(n => n * n);  
console.log(squares); // [1, 4, 9, 16, 25]
```

```
// filter → keeps only even numbers  
const evens = numbers.filter(n => n % 2 === 0);  
console.log(evens); // [2, 4]
```

```
// reduce → accumulates values into one  
const sum = numbers.reduce((acc, n) => acc + n, 0);  
console.log(sum); // 15
```