

4. Functional Programming

Roadmap

- > Functional vs. Imperative Programming
- > Pattern Matching
- > Referential Transparency
- > Lazy Evaluation
- > Recursion
- > Higher Order and Curried Functions



References

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- > "A Gentle Introduction to Haskell," Paul Hudak and Joseph H. Fasel
 - www.haskell.org/tutorial/
- Report on the Programming Language Haskell 98 A Non-strict, Purely Functional Language, Simon Peyton Jones and John Hughes [editors], February 1999
 - www.haskell.org
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 - book.realworldhaskell.org/read/

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A Bit of History

Lambda Calculus (Church, 1932-33)	formal model of computation
<i>Lisp</i> (McCarthy, 1960)	symbolic computations with lists
APL (Iverson, 1962)	algebraic programming with arrays
<i>ISWIM</i> (Landin, 1966)	let and where clauses equational reasoning; birth of "pure" functional programming
ML (Edinburgh, 1979)	originally meta language for theorem proving
SASL, KRC, Miranda (Turner, 1976-85)	lazy evaluation
<i>Haskell</i> (Hudak, Wadler, et al., 1988)	"Grand Unification" of functional languages

Programming without State

Imperative style:

n := x; a := 1; while n>0 do begin a:= a*n; n := n-1; end;

Declarative (functional) style:

Programs in pure functional languages have no explicit state.

Programs are constructed entirely by composing expressions.

Pure Functional Programming Languages

Imperative Programming:

> Program = Algorithms + Data

Functional Programming:

> Program = Functions of Functions

What is a Program?

 A program (computation) is a *transformation* from input data to output data.

Key features of pure functional languages

- 1. All programs and procedures are *functions*
- There are no variables or assignments only input parameters
- 3. There are *no loops* only recursive functions
- 4. The value returned by a function depends only on the values of its parameters
- 5. Functions are first-class values

What is Haskell?

Haskell is a general purpose, purely functional programming language incorporating many recent innovations in programming language design. Haskell provides higher-order functions, non-strict semantics, static polymorphic typing, user-defined algebraic datatypes, pattern-matching, list comprehensions, a module system, a monadic I/O system, and a rich set of primitive datatypes, including lists, arrays, arbitrary and fixed precision integers, and floating-point numbers. Haskell is both the culmination and solidification of many years of research on lazy functional languages.

— The Haskell 98 report

"Hello World" in Hugs

hello() = print "Hello World"

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Pattern Matching

Haskell supports multiple styles for specifying case-based function definitions:

Patterns:

```
fac' 0 = 1
fac' n = n * fac' (n-1)

-- or: fac' (n+1) = (n+1) * fac' n
```

Guards:

```
fac'' n | n == 0 = 1
| n >= 1 = n * fac'' (n-1)
```

Lists

<u>Lists</u> are *pairs* of elements and lists of elements:

- > [] stands for the empty list
- > x:xs stands for the list with x as the head and xs as the rest of the list

The following short forms make lists more convenient to use

```
> [1,2,3] — is syntactic sugar for 1:2:3:[ ]
```

> [1..n] — stands for [1,2,3, ... n]

Using Lists

Lists can be *deconstructed* using patterns:

```
head (x:) = x
len [] = 0
len (_:xs) = 1 + len xs
prod [ ] = 1
prod (x:xs) = x * prod xs
fac''' n = prod [1..n]
```

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Referential Transparency

A function has the property of <u>referential transparency</u> if *its* value depends only on the values of its parameters.

Does f(x) + f(x) equal 2*f(x)? In C? In Haskell?

Referential transparency means that "equals can be replaced by equals".

In a pure functional language, all functions are referentially transparent, and therefore *always yield the same result* no matter how often they are called.

Evaluation of Expressions

Expressions can be (formally) evaluated by substituting arguments for formal parameters in function bodies:

```
fac 4

L if 4 == 0 then 1 else 4 * fac (4-1)

L 4 * fac (4-1)

L 4 * (if (4-1) == 0 then 1 else (4-1) * fac (4-1-1))

L 4 * (if 3 == 0 then 1 else (4-1) * fac (4-1-1))

L 4 * ((4-1) * fac (4-1-1))

L 4 * ((4-1) * (if (4-1-1) == 0 then 1 else (4-1-1) * ...))

L ...

L 4 * ((4-1) * ((4-1-1) * ((4-1-1-1) * 1)))

L ...

L 24
```

Of course, real functional languages are not implemented by syntactic substitution ...

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Lazy Evaluation

"Lazy", or "normal-order" evaluation only evaluates expressions when they are actually needed. Clever implementation techniques (Wadsworth, 1971) allow replicated expressions to be shared, and thus avoid needless recalculations.

So:

Lazy evaluation allows some functions to be evaluated even if they are passed incorrect or non-terminating arguments:

```
ifTrue True x y = x
ifTrue False x y = y

ifTrue True 1 (5/0)  $\mathcal{L}$ 1
```

Lazy Lists

<u>Lazy lists</u> are *infinite data structures* whose values are generated by need:

```
from n = n : from (n+1)
                        from 100 L [100,101,102,103,....
take 0
take []
take (n+1) (x:xs) = x : take n xs
 take 2 (from 100)

    take 2 (100:from 101)

    100: (take 1 (from 101))

    100: (take 1 (101:from 102))

    100:101:(take 0 (from 102))
```

NB: The lazy list (from n) has the special syntax: [n..]

Programming lazy lists

Many sequences are naturally implemented as lazy lists. *Note the top-down, declarative style:*

```
fibs = 1 : 1 : fibsFollowing 1 1
   where fibsFollowing a b =
        (a+b) : fibsFollowing b (a+b)
```

```
take 10 fibs

[ 1, 1, 2, 3, 5, 8, 13, 21, 34, 55 ]
```

Mow would you re-write fibs so that (a+b) only appears once?

Declarative Programming Style

```
primes = primesFrom 2
primesFrom n = p : primesFrom (p+1)
  where p = nextPrime n
nextPrime n
  I is Prime n = n
  | otherwise = nextPrime (n+1)
isPrime 2
         = True
isPrime n = notDivisible primes n
notDivisible (k:ps) n
  | (k*k) > n = True
  | \pmod{n} | = 0 = \text{False}
  | otherwise = notDivisible ps n
```

take 100 primes **L** [2, 3, 5, 7, 11, 13, ... 523, 541]

Roadmap

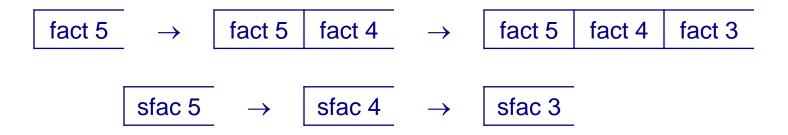
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Tail Recursion

Recursive functions can be less efficient than loops because of the *high* cost of procedure calls on most hardware.

A <u>tail recursive function</u> calls itself only as its last operation, so the recursive call can be *optimized away* by a modern compiler since it needs only a single run-time stack frame:



Tail Recursion ...

A recursive function can be converted to a tail-recursive one by representing partial computations as explicit function parameters:

Multiple Recursion

Naive recursion may result in unnecessary recalculations:

```
fib 1 = 1

fib 2 = 1

fib (n+2) = fib n + fib (n+1) - NB: Not tail-recursive!
```

Efficiency can be regained by explicitly passing calculated values:

How would you write a tail-recursive Fibonacci function?

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Higher Order Functions

Higher-order functions treat other *functions* as *first-class* values that can be composed to produce new functions.

```
map f [ ] = [ ]
map f (x:xs) = f x : map f xs
```

NB: map fac is a new function that can be applied to lists:

mfac [1..3] [1, 2, 6]

Anonymous functions

Anonymous functions can be written as "lambda abstractions". The function ($\x -> x * x$) behaves exactly like sqr:

$$sqr x = x * x$$

Anonymous functions are first-class values:

```
map (\x -> x * x) [1..10]

L [1, 4, 9, 16, 25, 36, 49, 64, 81, 100]
```

Curried functions

A <u>Curried function</u> [named after the logician H.B. Curry] *takes its arguments one at a time*, allowing it to be treated as a higher-order function.

plus'(x,y) =
$$x + y$$
 -- normal addition

plus' (1,2) **L** 3

Understanding Curried functions

plus
$$x y = x + y$$

plus
$$x y = x + y$$
 is the same as: plus $x = y - x + y$

In other words, plus is a function of one argument that returns a function as its result.

is the same as:

In other words, we invoke (plus 5), obtaining a function,

which we then pass the argument 6, yielding 11.

Using Curried functions

Curried functions are useful because we can bind their arguments incrementally

Currying

The following (pre-defined) function takes a binary function as an argument and turns it into a curried function:

```
curry f a b = f (a, b)
plus(x,y) = x + y
                  -- not curried!
inc
   = (curry plus) 1
sfac(s, n) = ifn == 0 -- not curried
             then s
             else sfac (s*n, n-1)
fac = (curry sfac) 1
                           -- bind first argument
```

To be continued ...

- > Enumerations
- > User data types
- > Type inference
- > Type classes

What you should know!

- What is referential transparency? Why is it important?
- When is a function tail recursive? Why is this useful?
- What is a higher-order function? An anonymous function?
- What are curried functions? Why are they useful?
- How can you avoid recalculating values in a multiply recursive function?
- What is lazy evaluation?
- What are lazy lists?

Can you answer these questions?

- Why don't pure functional languages provide loop constructs?
- When would you use patterns rather than guards to specify functions?
- Can you build a list that contains both numbers and functions?
- How would you simplify fibs so that (a+b) is only called once?
- What kinds of applications are well-suited to functional programming?

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