



CS 115

Functional Programming

Lecture 1:

Overview, philosophy, basics



Functional Programming



Today

- Course overview and policies
- Motivation (course philosophy)
- Introduction to Haskell





Course overview



Functional Programming



Life milestones



Functional Programming



Life milestones

- Birth





Life milestones

- High school graduation





Life milestones

- College graduation





Life milestones

- Getting your dream job





Life milestones

- Marriage





Life milestones

- Having kids



Life milestones

- Learning to program in a statically-typed functional programming language





Course policies

- 9 credits, graded
- No midterm or final 👍
- 6 regular assignments, graded from 0-10
- 4 marks for filling out final survey
- Maximum number of marks: 64, scaled to 100
- Grading scheme will be posted in course book
 - (linked from course Canvas site)





Assignments

- Multiple sections
- Each section gets a grade from 0-10
- Grade is *average* of section grades
- One week for rework after assignment graded
- Submitted through CodePost
(<https://codepost.io>)





Web site

- On Canvas
- Most material is stored off-site in the "course book", linked from the Canvas site
- Things not in the course book include:
 - starter code for assignments
 - lectures and lecture videos
 - TA contact info
 - research papers of interest (optional reading)





Textbooks

- None required; some good ones are:
 - Thinking Functionally with Haskell and Algorithm Design with Haskell by Bird
 - Haskell, the Craft of Functional Programming, 3rd ed. by Thompson
 - Programming in Haskell, 2nd ed. by Graham Hutton
 - Learn You a Haskell For Great Good by Lipovaca
 - Haskell Programming From First Principles
(<http://haskellbook.com>)





Course outline

- First half:
 - Basic functional programming
 - Evaluation, induction, proving correctness
 - Core Haskell
 - "Thinking functionally"





Course outline

- Second half: Monads
 - Theory:
 - notions of computation
 - monad laws





Course outline

- Second half: Monads
 - Applications:
 - computations that may fail (**Maybe** monad)
 - computations that return multiple values (list monad)
 - computations that may fail in multiple specific ways with error recovery (**Error** monad)
 - computations that do input/output (**IO** monad)
 - computations that manipulate state (**State** monad)
 - imperative programming in Haskell





Course philosophy/reason for being





What is wrong with programming?

- Your opinions?





What is wrong with programming?

- Some things that I think are wrong are:
 - Too many bugs (too difficult to write correct programs)
 - Too much code (code is at too low a level)
 - Too hard to exploit concurrent and parallel programming





What is wrong with programming?

- Functional programming (FP) may offer a solution to these problems
 - FP code typically has far fewer bugs than non-FP code ("If it compiles, it's very likely to be correct")
 - FP code typically at a much higher level than non-FP code (fewer lines of code to say the same thing)
 - FP code naturally lends itself to parallelization





Slogan

- Functional programming is all about writing
 - less code
 - better code (more likely to be correct)
 - code at a higher level of abstraction
(closer to the problem)





Simple demo

- Write a function to sum the values in a list of integers





Simple demo (Java)

```
public class Sum {  
    public static int sum(int[] nums) {  
        int result = 0;  
        for (int i = 0; i < nums.length; i++) {  
            result += nums[i];  
        }  
        return result;  
    }  
}
```





Simple demo (Haskell)

```
sum :: [Int] -> Int  
sum = foldr (+) 0
```





What is Functional Programming?

- Difficult to define precisely
- "You know it when you see it"
- Some common threads, several axes of variation





What is Functional Programming?

- Thread 1: *Functions are data*
 - Functions can be passed as arguments to other functions
 - Functions can be returned as return values of functions
 - Functions can be created on-the-fly
- *N.B.* By this standard, many non-FP languages (e.g. Python) would qualify as functional languages





What is Functional Programming?

- Thread 2: *State mutation is discouraged or forbidden completely*
 - Emphasis on using immutable data structures (singly-linked lists, trees) instead of mutable ones (arrays, hash tables)
 - Use of recursion for looping instead of counting up or down a state variable
 - Use of helper functions with extra arguments instead of mutable local state variables





Problem(s) with mutation

- State mutation is a very fertile source of bugs
 - e.g. aliasing
 - references to objects behave differently than copies of objects
 - "off-by-one" errors in loops





Problem(s) with mutation

- State mutation makes it harder to have a mathematical theory of programming
 - must model the locations where data kept
 - semantics are time-dependent





Advantages of mutation

- Many programming problems are most naturally expressed in terms of mutating state variables
 - e.g. simulations
- State mutation maps well onto current microprocessor designs
 - imperative code can thus run very efficiently
- Many familiar data structures and algorithms absolutely require the ability to mutate state
 - e.g. see *any* standard algorithms textbook





Programming paradigms

- Different programming "paradigms" are largely distinguished by the way they handle mutation
 - *Imperative*: allow mutation with no restrictions
 - *Object-oriented*: allow mutation internally in objects only (in response to a method call)
 - *Functional*: discourage mutation
 - *Purely functional*: disallow mutation entirely!
- This illustrates how important the "mutation problem" has been in the evolution of programming languages





"Functional style"

- Learning to write programs without mutation is one of the hardest aspects of learning functional programming
 - like learning to program from scratch all over again
- Many functional languages (e.g. Scheme, OCaml) allow mutation, allowing programmers to "cheat" and fall back on imperative habits if they want to
- Pure functional languages make this much harder, forcing you to learn *functional style*





Other FP features

- Some (but not all) functional languages have features such as:
 - strong static type systems
 - powerful type definition facilities
 - type inference
 - interactive interpreters
 - lazy evaluation
 - support for monads
 - support for concurrency and parallel programming





Survey of FP languages

- **Lisp**: Original FP language (1958!). Dynamically-typed, AI orientation, macros, fast compilers, "industrial strength"
- **Scheme**: Modern, "cleaned-up" Lisp, stronger FP orientation, hygienic macros
- **Clojure**: Lisp for the JVM, very functional, strong concurrency orientation
- **Erlang**: Dynamically-typed, concurrent FP language; emphasis is on massive concurrency using message-passing





Survey of FP languages

- **Scala**: Hybrid OO/FP language, runs on JVM, statically-typed, complex but powerful type system
- **Standard ML**: Statically-typed functional language with imperative programming support (mutable references and arrays)
- **OCaml**: Similar to Standard ML, OO extensions, fast compilers and fast code
- **Haskell...**





Haskell

- *A non-strict, purely functional language*
- Non-strict ("lazy"): expressions are never computed unless their values are needed
- *Purely functional:*
 - no mutable values (except with monads)
 - simple computational model (substitution model)
 - easy to reason about code correctness





Haskell

- Other features of Haskell:
 - Statically typed, compiled language
 - Very advanced type system
 - Generic programming using *type classes*
 - Imperative programming (and more!) using *monads*
 - Simulate OO features using *existential types*
 - Can even simulate dynamically-typed languages (with the **Typeable** type class)!





Why Haskell?

- Functional programming is a new way to think about programming (a new programming *paradigm*)
- To learn a new programming paradigm, it is useful to study the purest instance of it
- Almost all other FP languages let you "cheat" and program non-functionally
- Haskell doesn't, so you *must* learn to program functionally
 - though monads allow "controlled cheating"





Why Haskell?

- Much of the cutting-edge work in functional programming is being done in Haskell
- New FP abstractions are coming up all the time, usually first in Haskell
 - arrows
 - applicative functors
 - generalized abstract data types (GADTs)
 - functional dependencies / type families
 - *etc.*





Why Haskell?

- Haskell is also a *practical* programming language
 - very advanced compiler (**ghc**)
 - interactive interpreter (**ghci**)
 - fast executables
 - large libraries
 - very helpful and rapidly-growing user community





Personal observations

- Functional programming tends to spoil you as a programmer (hard to go back to non-FP languages)
 - Quote:
"Haskell is bad, it makes you hate other languages."
- When you get used to working at a high level, with strong type systems to check your work, it's hard to give that up
- **F**unctional languages are more fun!





Haskell vs. OCaml

- I teach two courses using OCaml, another functional language
- Both are great languages!
- Both have things the other doesn't





Haskell vs. OCaml

- OCaml:
 - faster code
 - easier to break out of "purity box"
 - better module system (functors *etc.*)
 - more "boring" but in a good way





Haskell vs. OCaml

- Haskell:
 - built-in lazy evaluation
 - much more powerful type system
 - type classes!
 - monads and "controlled effects"
 - many advanced features not found in OCaml
 - linear types
 - type-level computation
 - higher-kinded polymorphism





Haskell vs. OCaml

- Personal observation:
 - OCaml is more of a "getting s**t done" kind of language (very practical)
 - Haskell is more of a "how far can we push this idea?" kind of language
 - new abstractions tend to show up in Haskell before OCaml
- Serious functional programmers should learn both languages





Beyond Haskell

- Beyond Haskell and OCaml, there lies *dependently-typed* functional languages like *Idris* and *Agda*, which are a whole different level of awesomeness/terror
- Also Coq, which is the subject of another course (CS 128)




```

| w | | strict-lambda w
  step-cooper: {x} [(|((|+ 0 |) <+ var zero) <+ t) eq val (< 0)|) , eq-identity (var0-laminit (|+ 0) (t) |
  0 | refl = 1-slim (neg refl))
  step-cooper: {x} [(|((|+ 0 |) <+ var zero) <+ t) eq val (< 0)|) , eq-identity (var0-laminit (|+ 0) (t) |
x | Mk with lin-plus (t , y') (val -(|+ 0 |) , val-laminit-1) | lin-plus-rem (t , y') (val -(|+ 0 |) , val-l
... | w | Neg = 1-slim (M (P_{...} (Pa zero) (P_{...} + (P_{...} here (subst (λ u + x = u Z+ + 1) Neg (subst
(|+ 0 |) (< 1))) (subst (λ u + x = u) (sym (P-proj), Zr.-identity (|) < 1) (|+ 0 + p))) (imp (subst: (λ u
(λ u , p') < 0) p) Pr)))))
  step-cooper: {x} [(|not ((|+ 0 |) <+ var zero) <+ t) eq val (< 0)|) , neg-identity (var0-laminit (|+ 0)
(P_{...} (fromN (B-extract B)) (P_{...} (t , p') (P_{...} here (imp (subst (λ u + - x Z+ (|) < 1) (|+ 0 + p) Z+
(subst (λ u + - x Z+ u < 0) (Zr.-comm (+ B-extract B)) (|) < 1) (|+ 0 + p))) (subst (λ u + u < 0) (Zr.
(subst (λ u + - x Z+ u Z+ (|) < 1) (|+ 0 + p) < 0) (copp-level (+ B-extract B)) (subst (λ u + u Z+ (|) < 1)
(subst (λ u + - u Z+ (|) < 1) (|+ 0 + p) < 0) (unfold-Z- x (+ B-extract B)) (subst: (λ u < u Z+ < u < 0
simp0 (t , y') (x Z- + B-extract B) (+ 0) p) h0))))))
  step-cooper: {x} [(|((|+ 1) <+ var zero) <+ t) le val (< 0)|) , le-identity (var0-laminit (|+ 0) (t) (+ 1
Z+ < u Z+ (< 1) Z+ x Z+ (|) < 1) (|+ 0 + p)) (sym (P-proj), Zr.-identity (x Z- (+ B-extract B))) (context-simp
(|+ 0 + p)) (subst (λ u + x Z- + B-extract B Z+ u) (sym (P-proj), Zr.-identity x)) (Z-1 x (B-extract B))
  step-cooper: {x} [(|((|+ 1) <+ var zero) <+ t) eq val (< 0)|) , eq-identity (var0-laminit (|+ 0) (t) (+ 1
left-lambda B
  step-cooper: {x} [(|((|+ 1) <+ var zero) <+ t) eq val (< 0)|) , eq-identity (var0-laminit (|+ 0) (t) (+ 1
= 1-slim (neg refl))
  step-cooper: {x} [(|((|+ 1) <+ var zero) <+ t) eq val (< 0)|) , eq-identity (var0-laminit (|+ 0) (t) (+ 1
with lin-plus (lin-opp (t , y') (val -(|+ 0 |) , val-laminit-0) | lin-opp-rem (t , y') (< 0 + p) | lin-plus
(|+ 0 + p)
... | w | Neg, | Neg, = 1-slim (M (P_{...} (Pa zero) (P_{...} + (P_{...} here (subst (λ u + x = u Z+ + 1) Neg
(λ u + x = u) (sym (Zr.-assoc (< 1) < 1) (|+ 0 + p)) -(|+ 0 |) (< 1))) (subst (λ u + x = u) (sym (P-proj),
(subst (λ u + u Z+ x < 0) (sym copp-level (|) < 1) (|+ 0 + p)))) (subst (λ u + u < 0) (Zr.-comm + (|
(P-proj), Zr.-identity x) (context-simp0 (t , y') < 0) p) p0))))))
  step-cooper: {x} [(|not ((|+ 1) <+ var zero) <+ t) eq val (< 0)|) , neg-identity (var0-laminit (|+ 0) (t)
lin-opp-rem (t , y') (< 0 + p))

```

AGDA

DON'T EVEN THINK ABOUT LEARNING IT



Beginning of details





About Haskell

- Haskell is a compiled language
- Can also be run using an interpreter
 - with some restrictions
- Compiler we'll use: **ghc** (Glasgow Haskell Compiler)
 - state-of-the-art, many language extensions
- Interpreter we'll use: **ghci** (**ghc** interactive)
 - part of the **ghc** program
- Debugger: integrated into **ghci** (but rarely needed)





Code demo

- The rest of the lecture will be an extended code demo (ask questions!)
 - The rest of the slides are for reading after class
- Purposes of the demo
 - to introduce basic Haskell features
 - to show off how cool Haskell is
 - to blow your mind with some crazy code examples!





Haskell as a calculator

- We'll work mostly with **ghci** at first
- Start up **ghci**...

```
$ ghci
```

```
[... some descriptive text ...]
```

```
Prelude>
```

- Enter expressions at the prompt, hit **<return>** to evaluate them

```
Prelude> 2 + 2<return>
```

```
4
```

- Woo hoo!





Haskell as a calculator

```
Prelude> [1..10]
```

```
[1,2,3,4,5,6,7,8,9,10]
```

```
Prelude> sum [1..10]
```

```
55
```

```
Prelude> foldr (*) 1 [1..10]
```

```
3628800
```

- `[1..10]` is a list from 1 to 10
- Function calls (like `sum`) don't require parentheses around arguments





Haskell code in files

- Haskell source code files have names that end in **.hs** and (by convention) start with a capital letter (e.g. **Foo.hs**)
- Files normally define a *module* of Haskell code
- Start file **Foo.hs** like this:

```
module Foo where
```

```
...code goes here...
```

- (More sophisticated module declarations exist)





Comments

- Single-line comments start with `--` and go to the end of the line

```
-- This is a comment.
```

- Multi-line comments start with `{-` and go to the matching `-}`

```
{- This is a  
    multiline  
    comment. -}
```

- Multiline comments can nest!





File/`ghci` interaction

- `ghci` is good for interactive experimentation/testing of code
- Cannot enter arbitrary code into `ghci` (some limitations)
 - though newer versions of `ghci` are getting closer to supporting full Haskell language
- Best approach:
 - write code in source code files
 - load into `ghci`, test





File/ghci interaction

- Example: file `Foo.hs`:

```
module Foo where  
  
double :: Int -> Int  
double x = 2 * x
```

- Load into `ghci` and test:

```
Prelude> :load Foo.hs
```

```
*Foo> double 10
```

```
20
```





File/ghci interaction

- **:load** is an example of a **ghci**-specific command (not part of Haskell language)
 - instruction to the interpreter: load a particular file
- Can abbreviate this as **:l**

```
Prelude> :l Foo.hs
```

- When loading a module, the prompt changes to reflect the new module

```
*Foo>
```

- The ***** means that all definitions in the module **Foo** are in scope





Function definitions

- Definition of the `double` function in `Foo.hs`:
`double :: Int -> Int`
`double x = 2 * x`
- The first line is the function's *type declaration*
- The `::` means "has the type:"
 - so `double` "has the type" `Int -> Int`
- `Int` is the name of the type of (machine-level) integers
- `->` means that this is a function which takes one `Int` argument and produces one `Int` result





Function definitions

- Type declarations can be omitted:

```
double x = 2 * x
```

- The compiler will try to infer what the proper type should be (*type inference*)
- This will usually work, but it's almost always a better idea to write down the type declaration explicitly
 - good documentation
 - clear statement of programmer intent
- Inferred types are often more general than you might want, e.g.

```
double :: Num a => a -> a
```





Function definitions

- The definition of the function **double**:

double x = 2 * x

- is an equation describing how to transform the input (**x**) into the output
- Haskell functions are written as a series of equations describing how all possible inputs are transformed into the outputs





Types

- Consider:

```
double :: Int -> Int
```

```
double x = 2 * x
```

- Haskell is *strongly statically typed*
- All values have a type which is known at compile time
- Types are checked during compilation
 - errors mean code doesn't compile





Types

- Consider:

```
double :: Int -> Int
```

```
double x = 2 * x
```

- **x** has the type **Int**
- The return value of the function has type **Int**
- **double** has the *functional type* **Int -> Int**
- **double** is a *value*, just like **x** is
- Functions are values in functional languages!





Types

- You can use **ghci** to query the type of any value

```
Prelude> :load Foo.hs
```

```
*Foo> :type double
```

```
double :: Int -> Int
```

```
*Foo> :t double
```

```
double :: Int -> Int
```

- **:t** is short for **:type**





Pattern matching

- Most functions have more than one equation:

```
factorial :: Integer -> Integer
```

```
factorial 0 = 1
```

```
factorial n = n * factorial (n - 1)
```

- **Integer** is the type of arbitrary-precision integers
- Given an input, Haskell selects the appropriate equation to use by *pattern matching*
- Left-hand sides of equations are patterns to match





Pattern matching

`factorial :: Integer -> Integer`

`factorial 0 = 1`

`factorial n = n * factorial (n - 1)`

- Given a function call e.g. `factorial 3`:
 - Haskell tries to match with `factorial 0`
 - `0` doesn't match `3` (failure)
 - Then tries to match with `factorial n`
 - This will match if `n` is `3`
 - evaluates `3 * factorial (3 - 1)`, etc.





Pattern matching

- We will have much more to say about pattern matching in subsequent lectures
- Pattern matching is a pervasive feature of Haskell programming
- Beginning programmers often under-utilize it in favor of more familiar approaches
- For instance...





if expression

- More conventional way to write **factorial** function:

```
factorial :: Integer -> Integer
```

```
factorial n = if n == 0
```

```
    then 1
```

```
    else n * factorial (n - 1)
```

- Note: Haskell has indentation-sensitive syntax, sort of like Python but less rigid
- **then** and **else** must not be to the left of **if** ("offside rule")





if expression

```
factorial :: Integer -> Integer
factorial n = if n == 0
               then 1
               else n * factorial (n - 1)
```

- **if** has the form:
 - **if** <test> **then** <expr1> **else** <expr2>
- <test> must have type **Bool** (boolean)
 - whose values are **True** and **False**
- <expr1> and <expr2> must both have same type
- cannot leave out <expr2>





Next time

- More Haskell basics
- Evaluation in Haskell

