

A good programming language is a *Functional*  
one

Artin Ghasivand

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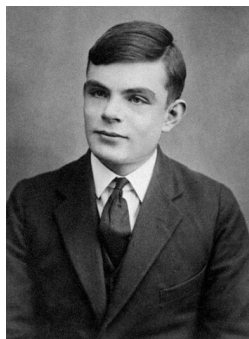
# People



Alonzo Church



Kurt Gödel



Alan Turing

- Alonzo Church: Untyped Lambda-Calculus, 1935
- Kurt Gödel: General Recursive functions, 1935 (Stephen Kleene)
- Alan Turing: Turing machines, 1936

# Untyped Lambda-Calculus

## Syntax of the untyped lambda-calculus

$var$	$\ni$	$a, b, ab, ..$	Variable names
$term$	$::=$	$var$	Variable
	$ $	$\lambda var.term$	Abstraction
	$ $	$term_1 term_2$	Application

# Untyped Lambda-Calculus extended with natural numbers

## Syntax of untyped lambda-calculus

<i>num</i>	$\ni$	$0, 1, \dots$	Natural numbers
<i>var</i>	$\ni$	$a, b, ab, \dots$	Variable names
<i>term</i>	$::=$	<i>var</i>	Variable
		$\mid \lambda var. term$	Abstraction
		$\mid term_1 term_2$	Application

Assume the plus operator  $+$  is a builtin function:

$y$   
 $\lambda x. x$   
 $\lambda x. x + 2$   
 $\lambda x. \lambda y. x$   
 $(\lambda x. x + 2) 2$   
 $(\lambda x. x) 2$

# Untyped Lambda-Calculus: Reduction

- The process of evaluating terms is called *reducing* them
- Reducing  $(\lambda x. x + 2) 2$  will give us 4
- The formal name for this process is called *beta-reduction*

# Untyped Lambda-Calculus: Currying

- Lambda abstractions can only take *one* argument
- Multiple argument functions are encoded as functions that return *functions*
- Application is *left associative*:  $\text{fun } arg_1 \ arg_2$  is the same as  $(\text{fun } arg_1) \ arg_2$

Example:  $f(x, y) = x + y$  is encoded as  $\lambda x. (\lambda y. x + y)$ .

- $(\lambda x. (\lambda y. x + y))5$  reduces to  $\lambda y. 5 + y$
- $(\lambda x. (\lambda y. x + y))5 : 9$  reduces to  $5 + 9$

# Untyped Lambda-Calculus: Meaningless terms

What is the meaning of the following examples?

- $3\ 3$  (we are applying 3 to 3)
- $9\ \lambda x. x$
- $(\lambda x. x)(\lambda y. y)$

Answer: They **Don't** have one!

In a programming language like Python, such terms result in a **runtime error**!

# Simply Typed Lambda-Calculus

The syntax of Simply Typed Lambda-Calculus extended with natural numbers

<i>tyvar</i>	$\ni$	$\alpha, \beta, \dots$	Type variable
<i>num</i>	$\ni$	$0, 1 \dots$	Natural numbers
<i>var</i>	$\ni$	$a, b, ab, ..$	Variable names
<i>Type</i>	$::=$	<i>tyvar</i>	Type variable
		$\mathbb{N}$	Natural number
		$Type \rightarrow Type$	Function
<i>term</i>	$::=$	<i>var</i>	Variable
		$\lambda var : Type. term$	Abstraction
		$term_1 term_2$	Application
		<i>num</i>	Natural number



# Simply Typed Lambda-Calculus

For our purposes, you can think of a *type* as classifier for *terms*. But remember a term *can't have multiple types!*. Examples:

- All the terms of type  $A \rightarrow B$  are *functions* that given something of type  $A$  would return something of type  $B$
- All the terms of type  $\mathbb{N}$  are *numbers*

Rules:

- Abstraction: if  $x : A$  and  $term : B$ , then  $\lambda x : A. term : A \rightarrow B$
- Application: if  $fun : A \rightarrow B$  and  $arg : A$ , then  $fun\ arg : B$

Laws:

- Function arrow is right associative:  $A \rightarrow B \rightarrow C$  is the same as  $A \rightarrow (B \rightarrow C)$

Example: If  $\lambda x : \mathbb{N}. x + 2 : \mathbb{N} \rightarrow \mathbb{N}$  and  $4 : \mathbb{N}$ , then  $(\lambda x : \mathbb{N}. x + 2 : \mathbb{N} \rightarrow \mathbb{N})\ 4 : \mathbb{N}$

# The essence of functional programming

- Higher-order functions (first-class functions)
- Recursion over loops
- Lambdas (anonymous functions)
- Prioritizing purity and separating effectful computations
- Avoiding hidden state
- Persistent data structures
- Declarative style
- Composability

# Nice to have features

- Static typing
- Type inference
- Pattern matching
- Guards
- Algebraic datatypes
- Read-Eval-Print Loop

# Purity

A *pure* function is a function in the mathematical sense of the word. i.e.

- Given identical inputs, the function returns identical outputs.
- No side effects

Benefits of pure functions:

- Referential transparency
- No hidden state or action
- Easier to debug
- Easier to test

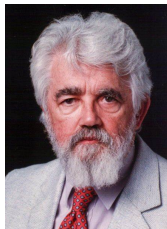
# Laziness

- The arguments of a function are not evaluated until needed
- Laziness *forces* purity
- Defining control-flow as functions instead of primitives or macros
- Infinite data structures

Example in pseudo-code: `if True then return 9 else return VeryBigDataStructure!!!`

In this case `VeryBigDataStructure` is never evaluated!

# Lisp



John McCarthy,  
Lisp



Steeve Russel

- Family of Meta-programming languages, first specified in 1960 by John McCarthy
- Short for *List Processing*
- Macros (meta-programming)
- Introduced garbage collection
- Introduced Read-Eval-Print Loop, i.e. REPL

# Lisp



Guy Steele,  
Common Lisp,  
Scheme



Matthias  
Felleisen,  
Scheme, Racket

- Introduced dynamic typing
- Introduced conditionals
- Introduced higher-order functions
- Introduced tail-call optimization



Robin  
Milner,  
type  
system, ML



Robert  
Harper,  
module  
system,  
SML



Mads  
Tofte,  
formal  
definition,  
SML



David  
MacQueen,  
core  
language,  
SML

- Short for *Meta Language*
- Family of strict and impure functional languages. Some implementations: SML, OCaml, F#
- Introduced type inference with the Hindley-Milner type system
- Algebraic datatypes and pattern matching
- ML modules





Joe  
Armstrong

Robert  
Virding

Mike  
Williams



Erlang

- Strong support for concurrency
- Strict and dynamically typedx
- Developed in 1986 at Ericsson for telecommuting purposes
- Named after mathematician Agner Krarup Erlang and short for *Ericson Language*
- Hot code reloading
- BEAM VM
- REPL

# Miranda



David Turner



Miranda

- Created in 1985 by David Turner
- Lazy and pure
- Algebraic datatypes
- Hindley-Milner type inference
- List comprehensions
- Beautiful syntax
- Proprietary

# Haskell: summary



Haskell Curry



Haskell

- Lazy and pure
- Similar syntax to Miranda
- Named after logician Haskell Brooks Curry
- List comprehension
- Kind system
- Type inference
- Introduced type classes (ad-hoc polymorphism) and Monads

# Haskell: history



Working group 2.8

- Devised by a committee in 1998
- Greatly inspired by Miranda
- Developed to have a single standard for *pure* and *lazy* functional languages
- Later standards Haskell98 and Haskell2010

# Haskell: The original Haskell98 committee

- Simon Peyton Jones, Microsoft Research, Cambridge
- Lennart Augustsson, Sandburst Corporation
- Dave Barton, Intermetrics
- Brian Boutel, Victoria University of Wellington
- Warren Burton, Simon Fraser University
- Joseph Fasel, Los Alamos National Laboratory
- Kevin Hammond, University of St. Andrews
- Ralf Hinze, University of Bonn
- Paul Hudak, Yale University
- John Hughes, Chalmers University of Technology
- Thomas Johnsson, Chalmers University of Technology
- Mark Jones, Oregon Graduate Institute
- John Launchbury, Oregon Graduate Institute
- Erik Meijer, Microsoft Corporation
- John Peterson, Yale University
- Alastair Reid, University of Utah
- Colin Runciman, York University
- Philip Wadler, Avaya Labs

# Haskell: Some of the influential people throughout the years

Simon Peyton Jones, Philip Wadler, Stephenie Weirich, Richard Eisenberg, Arvind, Lennart Augustsson, Dave Barton, Brian Boutel, Warren Burton, Manuel M T Chakravarty, Duncan Coutts, Jon Fairbairn, Joseph Fasel, John Goerzen, Andy Gordon, Maria Guzman, Kevin Hammond, Bastiaan Heeren, Ralf Hinze, Paul Hudak, John Hughes, Thomas Johnsson, Isaac Jones, Mark Jones, Dick Kieburtz, John Launchbury, Andres Löh, Ian Lynagh, Simon Marlow, John Meacham, Erik Meijer, Ravi Nanavati, Rishiyur Nikhil, Henrik Nilsson, Ross Paterson, John Peterson, Mike Reeve, Alastair Reid, Vladislav Zaviolav, Ryan Scott, Colin Runciman, Don Stewart, Martin Sulzmann, Audrey Tang, Simon Thompson, Malcolm Wallace, David Wise, Jonathan Young, and many more!

# Haskell: implementations

Haskell has had many implementation, but currently GHC is the most performant and featurful implementaion.

- GHC
- hbc
- hugs
- Yale Haskell
- UHC
- LHC

# GHC Haskell



Simon Peyton  
Jones



Simon Marlow

**Figure:** Original authors of GHC

Some of the features of GHC: Impredicativity, GADTs, Existential types, Type families, Type abstractions, Required type arguments, Pattern synonyms, Higher-Rank types, Kind polymorphism, Dependent kinds and ...!



# GHCI: GHC's REPL

```
artin@Batcomputer:~/ > ghci
GHCI, version 9.10.1: https://www.haskell.org/ghc/  :? for help
Loaded GHCi configuration from /Users/artin/.ghc/ghci.conf
λx. "Hello!"
"Hello!"
λx. :t \x -> x
\x -> x :: p -> p
λx. █
```

- GHC has a REPL called GHCI that let's you compile Haskell to byte code and run it interactively.
- You can ask for the type of something in GHCI by using the `:t` command

# Defining functions

```
two :: Integer
two = 2

plusTwo :: Integer -> Integer
plusTwo = \x -> x + 2

plusTwo' :: Integer -> Integer
plusTwo' x = x + 2

const :: a -> b -> a
const x y = x
```

- The part with `::` is called the *type signature* of the function
- The part with `=` is called the *function definition* or the *function equation*

# Using functions

Just like in Lambda-calculus, applying a function to its argument is done without putting them inside parenthesis.

Applying the function  $f$  to arguments  $x$  and  $y$ :

- Python:  $f(x,y)$
- Haskell:  $f\ x\ y$
- Lambda-Calculus:  $f\ x\ y$

# Operators are functions too

```
(+++)  
str1 +++ str2 = concat str1 str2
```

```
-- s1 +++ s2 +++ s3 == (s1 +++ s2) +++ s3  
--                               == s1 +++ (s2 +++ s3)
```

- Easier to chain together
- Easier to show algebraic laws like associativity

# Function composition

- Just another function!
- Takes two functions and a value. First applies the second argument and then the first
- The `.` operator is amongst the most used operators!

```
compose :: (b -> c) -> (a -> b) -> a -> c  
compose g f x = g (f x)
```

```
(.) :: (b -> c) -> (a -> b) -> a -> c  
(.) g f x = g (f x)
```

```
-- h . g . f = h . (g . f)
```

# Function composition: example

$\lambda x \rightarrow x * 3$  is the same thing as  $(* 3)$ .

```
compositionExample = (\y -> y^9) . (\x -> x * 3) . plusTwo . const 4
```

```
compositionExample2 = (^ 9) . (* 3) . plusTwo . const 4
```

```
λ> compositionExample 2  
198359290368
```

```
λ> compositionExample2 2  
198359290368
```

# List and laziness

- The empty list is represented using `[]`
- We use the cons operator `(:)` to add an element to the start of a list

```
λ> emptyList = []  
λ> oneAndTwo = 1 : 2 : []  
λ> oneAndTwo' = [1,2]  
λ> oneAndTwo == oneAndTwo'  
True  
λ> 3 : oneAndTwo  
[3,1,2]
```

```
λ> const "Hello!" [0..]  
"Hello!"
```

# Algebraic Datatypes

Algebraic Data Types are created by the combination of:

- Sum types i.e. better enums
- Product types i.e. better structs

Examples:

- Sum type: `Bool` is *either* `True` or `False`
- Product type: The 2-tuple `(Int,String)` needs both an `Int` and a `String`. `(3, "Hi!")`



# Algebraic Datatypes: **Food** type

```
type Size = Int

data HasRice = Yes | No

data Food = Pizza Size | Kebab Size HasRice
```

```
λ> myPizza = Pizza 5
λ> myKebab = Kebab 8 Yes
λ> :t myPizza
myPizza :: Food
λ> :t myKebab
myKebab :: Food
```

**Food** has two *data constructors*:

- **Pizza**: In order to make **Pizza** you need to give it a value of type **Size**
- **Kebab**: In order to make **Kebab** you need to give it a value of type **Size** **and** a value of type **HasRice**

# Pattern matching

You can *match* and *deconstruct* patterns on the left hand side of an equation.

```
isKebabWithRice :: Food -> HasRice
isKebabWithRice (Kebab _ hasRice) = hasRice
isKebabWithRice _                  = No

getFoodSize :: Food -> Size
getFoodSize (Pizza size)    = size
getFoodSize (Kebab size _) = size

isPizzaOfSizeSeven :: Food -> Bool
isPizzaOfSizeSeven (Pizza 7) = True
isPizzaOfSizeSeven _         = False
```

- Patterns can *deconstruct* data constructors, *introduce* variables, or always match by having a *wildcard*
- Patterns can be as nested as you want!

# The `map` function

The `map` function applies a function to all of the elements of a list  
Examples

```
λ> map (\x -> x + 2) [1,2,3]  
[3,4,5]
```

Example 1

```
λ> map (\n -> say n "H") [1,2,3]  
["H", "HH", "HHH"]
```

Example 2

# The `map` function in action

```
map :: (a -> b) -> List a -> List b
map f [] = []
map f (x : xs) = f x : map f xs
```

Important Note: Because of laziness, Haskell doesn't actually reduce the applications until it's needed!

Let's evaluate `map (+2) [1,2,3]`

**1** `map (+2) [1,2,3]`

# The `map` function in action

```
map :: (a -> b) -> List a -> List b
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Important Note: Because of laziness, Haskell doesn't actually reduce the applications until it's needed!

Let's evaluate `map (+2) [1,2,3]`

1 `map (+2) [1,2,3]`

2 `(1 + 2) : map (+2) [2,3]`

# The `map` function in action

```
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```

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- 1 `map (+2) [1,2,3]`
- 2 `(1 + 2) : map (+2) [2,3]`
- 3 `(1 + 2) : (2 + 2) : map (+2) [3]`

# The `map` function in action

```
map :: (a -> b) -> List a -> List b
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Let's evaluate `map (+2) [1,2,3]`

- 1 `map (+2) [1,2,3]`
- 2 `(1 + 2) : map (+2) [2,3]`
- 3 `(1 + 2) : (2 + 2) : map (+2) [3]`
- 4 `(1 + 2) : (2 + 2) : (3 + 3) : map (+2) []`

# The `map` function in action

```
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- 3 `(1 + 2) : (2 + 2) : map (+2) [3]`
- 4 `(1 + 2) : (2 + 2) : (3 + 3) : map (+2) []`
- 5 `(1 + 2) : (2 + 2) : (3 + 2) : []`



# The `map` function in action

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map f [] = []
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```

Important Note: Because of laziness, Haskell doesn't actually reduce the applications until it's needed!

Let's evaluate `map (+2) [1,2,3]`

- 1 `map (+2) [1,2,3]`
- 2 `(1 + 2) : map (+2) [2,3]`
- 3 `(1 + 2) : (2 + 2) : map (+2) [3]`
- 4 `(1 + 2) : (2 + 2) : (3 + 3) : map (+2) []`
- 5 `(1 + 2) : (2 + 2) : (3 + 2) : []`
- 6 `3 : 4 : 5 : []`

# The `map` function in action

```
map :: (a -> b) -> List a -> List b
map f [] = []
map f (x : xs) = f x : map f xs
```

Important Note: Because of laziness, Haskell doesn't actually reduce the applications until it's needed!

Let's evaluate `map (+2) [1,2,3]`

- 1 `map (+2) [1,2,3]`
- 2 `(1 + 2) : map (+2) [2,3]`
- 3 `(1 + 2) : (2 + 2) : map (+2) [3]`
- 4 `(1 + 2) : (2 + 2) : (3 + 3) : map (+2) []`
- 5 `(1 + 2) : (2 + 2) : (3 + 2) : []`
- 6 `3 : 4 : 5 : []`
- 7 `[3,4,5]`

# The *Maybe* type and its usage

```
data Maybe a = Just a
              | Nothing

(/? ) :: Integer -> Integer -> Maybe Integer
x /? 0 = Nothing
x /? y = Just (division x y)
```

Why is this better than throwing an error?

- Errors are thrown when we *run* the program. We want the compiler to catch the bug during *compilation*!
- By reading the type of *(/?)* i.e. *Integer*  $\rightarrow$  *Integer*  $\rightarrow$  *MaybeInteger*, we find out that this function could *fail*

# The **Maybe** type and its usage

Important note: GHCi compiles the code before running it

```
λ> 2 + (2 /? 0)
<interactive>:189:6-11: error: [GHC-83865]
  • Couldn't match expected type 'Integer'
    with actual type 'Maybe Integer'
  • In the second argument of '(+)', namely '(2 /? 0)'
    In the expression: 2 + (2 /? 0)
    In an equation for 'it': it = 2 + (2 /? 0)
```

# Type classes: Ad-hoc polymorphism

Type classes give us access to ad-hoc polymorphism.

As an example, The **Show** type class lets us convert values into strings.

```
class Show a where  
  show :: a -> String  
  
instance Show Bool where  
  show True  = "True"  
  show False = "False"
```

```
λ> :t show  
show :: Show a => a -> String  
λ> show 2  
"2"  
λ> show True  
"True"  
λ> show [ [True, True], [False, False] ]  
"[[True,True],[False,False]]"
```

# Type classes: Deriving

Haskell can write *most* of the type class instances for you!

```
data Day = Saturday
        | Sunday
        | Monday
        | Tuesday
        | Wednesday
        | Thursday
        | Friday
        deriving (Show, Eq)
```

Day type

```
λ> show Saturday
"Saturday"
λ> Saturday == Saturday
True
```

# Datatypes as contexts

- List: Order matters
- Tree: Easy navigation and lookup
- Maybe: Computation could fail

All of these have one thing in common: They all hold values inside them, and you can see the type of that value from outside.

- **Maybe String** holds a value of type **String**
- **List a** holds values of type **a**
- **Tree Food** holds values of type **Food**

# The *Functor* class

```
class Functor f where  
    fmap :: (a -> b) -> f a -> f b  
  
instance Functor [] where  
    fmap = map  
  
instance Functor Maybe where  
    fmap f (Just x) = Just (f x)  
    fmap f Nothing = Nothing
```

Laws:

- $fmap (g \circ f) x \equiv (fmap\ g \circ fmap\ f) x$
- $fmap\ id\ x \equiv x$



## Functor: two instances

Yes! the **Functor** instance of the **List** type is just the **map** function!

```
instance Functor Maybe where
```

```
  fmap f (Just x) = Just (f x)
```

```
  fmap f Nothing  = Nothing
```

```
instance Functor List where
```

```
  fmap f (x : xs) = f x : fmap f xs
```

```
  fmap f []       = []
```

## Functor: examples

```
λ> :t fmap
fmap :: Functor f => (a -> b) -> f a -> f b
```

```
λ> fmap (\x -> x + 2) (Just 2)
Just 4
```

```
λ> fmap (\x -> x + 2) Nothing
Nothing
```

```
λ> fmap (\x -> x + 2) [1,2]
[3,4]
```

```
λ> fmap (\x -> x + 2) []
[]
```

# Type Inference

```
and True x = x
and False _ = False
```

```
λ> :type and
and :: Bool -> Bool -> Bool
λ> █
```

Haskell is smart enough to *infer* the type of most functions by itself. And if you give it the wrong argument, it will tell you exactly what you did wrong!

e.g. `test = and True 'c'` will result in the following error message:

**Main.hs:35:17: error:** [GHC-83865]

- Couldn't match expected type 'Bool' with actual type 'Char'
- In the second argument of 'and', namely ''c''  
In the expression: and True 'c'  
In an equation for 'test': test = and True 'c'

```
35 | test = and True 'c'
    |                      ^^^
```

# Type Inference

```
and True x = x
and False _ = False
```

```
λ> :type and
and :: Bool -> Bool -> Bool
λ> █
```

Haskell is smart enough to *infer* the type of most functions by itself. And if you give it the wrong argument, it will tell you exactly what you did wrong!

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- In the second argument of 'and', namely ''c''  
In the expression: and True 'c'  
In an equation for 'test': test = and True 'c'

```
35 | test = and True 'c'
    |                      ^^^
```

# Type Inference

Haskell's type system is clever enough that we didn't actually need to write *any* type signatures for the examples I showed you! To emphasize this, the type signatures of the upcoming examples are commented out.

Here are some good reasons for why you should write them though:

- Type signatures are like documentation, they tell us a lot about the function at hand
- Sometimes Haskell infers types that are *more* polymorphic than you'd want
- When refactoring, you might unknowingly change the type of functions

## Example: **factorial** in Python

```
def factorial(n):  
    if n == 0:  
        return 1  
    else:  
        return n * factorial(n - 1)
```

## Example: **factorial** in Haskell

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

## Example: `factorial` in Haskell

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

Let's evaluate `factorial 3`:

- 1 `factorial 3`
- 2 `3 * factorial 2`



## Example: `factorial` in Haskell

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

Let's evaluate `factorial 3`:

- 1 `factorial 3`
- 2 `3 * factorial 2`
- 3 `3 * 2 * factorial 1`

## Example: `factorial` in Haskell

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

Let's evaluate `factorial 3`:

- 1 `factorial 3`
- 2 `3 * factorial 2`
- 3 `3 * 2 * factorial 1`
- 4 `3 * 2 * 1 * factorial 0`

## Example: `factorial` in Haskell

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

Let's evaluate `factorial 3`:

- 1 `factorial 3`
- 2 `3 * factorial 2`
- 3 `3 * 2 * factorial 1`
- 4 `3 * 2 * 1 * factorial 0`
- 5 `3 * 2 * 1 * 1`

## Example: `factorial` in Haskell

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

Let's evaluate `factorial 3`:

- 1 `factorial 3`
- 2 `3 * factorial 2`
- 3 `3 * 2 * factorial 1`
- 4 `3 * 2 * 1 * factorial 0`
- 5 `3 * 2 * 1 * 1`
- 6 `6 * 1 * 1`

## Example: `factorial` in Haskell

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

Let's evaluate `factorial 3`:

- 1 `factorial 3`
- 2 `3 * factorial 2`
- 3 `3 * 2 * factorial 1`
- 4 `3 * 2 * 1 * factorial 0`
- 5 `3 * 2 * 1 * 1`
- 6 `6 * 1 * 1`
- 7 `6 * 1`

## Example: `factorial` in Haskell

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

Let's evaluate `factorial 3`:

- 1 `factorial 3`
- 2 `3 * factorial 2`
- 3 `3 * 2 * factorial 1`
- 4 `3 * 2 * 1 * factorial 0`
- 5 `3 * 2 * 1 * 1`
- 6 `6 * 1 * 1`
- 7 `6 * 1`
- 8 `6`

## Example: `say` in Python

`say` is a function that given a number  $n$  and a string *string*, will repeat the *string*  $n$  times.

e.g. `say(2,"Hi ") = "Hi Hi "`

```
def say(n,string):  
    i = 0  
    final = ""  
    while i < n:  
        final = string + final  
        i += 1  
    return final
```

## Example: `say` in Haskell

The `++` operator concatenates two strings together.

```
-- say :: Int -> String -> String
say 0 _ = ""
say n str = str ++ say (n - 1) str
```



## Example: `say` in Haskell

The `++` operator concatenates two strings together.

```
-- say :: Int -> String -> String
say 0 _ = ""
say n str = str ++ say (n - 1) str
```

Let's evaluate `say 2 "Hi "`:

- 1 `say 2 "Hi "`
- 2 `"Hi " ++ say 1 "Hi"`

## Example: `say` in Haskell

The `++` operator concatenates two strings together.

```
-- say :: Int -> String -> String
say 0 _ = ""
say n str = str ++ say (n - 1) str
```

Let's evaluate `say 2 "Hi "`:

- 1 `say 2 "Hi "`
- 2 `"Hi " ++ say 1 "Hi"`
- 3 `"Hi " ++ "Hi " ++ say 0 "Hi"`

## Example: `say` in Haskell

The `++` operator concatenates two strings together.

```
-- say :: Int -> String -> String
say 0 _ = ""
say n str = str ++ say (n - 1) str
```

Let's evaluate `say 2 "Hi "`:

- 1 `say 2 "Hi "`
- 2 `"Hi " ++ say 1 "Hi"`
- 3 `"Hi " ++ "Hi " ++ say 0 "Hi"`
- 4 `"Hi " ++ "Hi " ++ ""`

## Example: `say` in Haskell

The `++` operator concatenates two strings together.

```
-- say :: Int -> String -> String
say 0 _ = ""
say n str = str ++ say (n - 1) str
```

Let's evaluate `say 2 "Hi "`:

- 1 `say 2 "Hi "`
- 2 `"Hi " ++ say 1 "Hi"`
- 3 `"Hi " ++ "Hi " ++ say 0 "Hi"`
- 4 `"Hi " ++ "Hi " ++ ""`
- 5 `"Hi Hi " ++ ""`

## Example: `say` in Haskell

The `++` operator concatenates two strings together.

```
-- say :: Int -> String -> String
say 0 _      = ""
say n str = str ++ say (n - 1) str
```

Let's evaluate `say 2 "Hi "`:

- 1 `say 2 "Hi "`
- 2 `"Hi " ++ say 1 "Hi"`
- 3 `"Hi " ++ "Hi " ++ say 0 "Hi"`
- 4 `"Hi " ++ "Hi " ++ ""`
- 5 `"Hi Hi " ++ ""`
- 6 `"Hi Hi "`

## Example: `hasEven` in Python

`hasEven` is a function that given a character, *char*, and a string *string*, will return *true* if the number of times *char* occurs in *string* is even.

```
def hasEven(char, string):  
    i = 0  
    for c in string:  
        if c == char:  
            i += 1  
    return (True if (i % 2) == 0 else False)
```

## Example: `hasEven` in Haskell

`even` is a built-in function that says whether its input is even or not.

```
-- hasEven :: Char -> String -> Bool
hasEven char string = even (loop 0 string)
  where
    loop n "" = n
    loop n (ch : chars) = if ch == char
                          then loop (n + 1) chars
                          else loop n chars
```

## Example: `hasEven` in Haskell

```
-- hasEven :: Char -> String -> Bool
hasEven char string = even (loop 0 string)
  where
    loop n "" = n
    loop n (ch : chars) = if ch == char
                          then loop (n + 1) chars
                          else loop n chars
```



## Example: `hasEven` in Haskell

```
-- hasEven :: Char -> String -> Bool
hasEven char string = even (loop 0 string)
  where
    loop n "" = n
    loop n (ch : chars) = if ch == char
                          then loop (n + 1) chars
                          else loop n chars
```

Let's evaluate `hasEven 'e' "eyes"`:

- 1 `even (loop 0 "eyes")`
- 2 `even (loop 1 "yes")`

## Example: `hasEven` in Haskell

```
-- hasEven :: Char -> String -> Bool
hasEven char string = even (loop 0 string)
  where
    loop n "" = n
    loop n (ch : chars) = if ch == char
                          then loop (n + 1) chars
                          else loop n chars
```

Let's evaluate `hasEven 'e' "eyes"`:

- 1 `even (loop 0 "eyes")`
- 2 `even (loop 1 "yes")`
- 3 `even (loop 1 "es")`

## Example: `hasEven` in Haskell

```
-- hasEven :: Char -> String -> Bool
hasEven char string = even (loop 0 string)
  where
    loop n "" = n
    loop n (ch : chars) = if ch == char
                           then loop (n + 1) chars
                           else loop n chars
```

Let's evaluate `hasEven 'e' "eyes"`:

- 1 `even (loop 0 "eyes")`
- 2 `even (loop 1 "yes")`
- 3 `even (loop 1 "es")`
- 4 `even (loop 2 "s")`

## Example: `hasEven` in Haskell

```
-- hasEven :: Char -> String -> Bool
hasEven char string = even (loop 0 string)
  where
    loop n "" = n
    loop n (ch : chars) = if ch == char
                           then loop (n + 1) chars
                           else loop n chars
```

Let's evaluate `hasEven 'e' "eyes"`:

- 1 `even (loop 0 "eyes")`
- 2 `even (loop 1 "yes")`
- 3 `even (loop 1 "es")`
- 4 `even (loop 2 "s")`
- 5 `even (loop 2 "")`

## Example: `hasEven` in Haskell

```
-- hasEven :: Char -> String -> Bool
hasEven char string = even (loop 0 string)
  where
    loop n ""           = n
    loop n (ch : chars) = if ch == char
                          then loop (n + 1) chars
                          else loop n  chars
```

Let's evaluate `hasEven 'e' "eyes"`:

- 1 `even (loop 0 "eyes")`
- 2 `even (loop 1 "yes")`
- 3 `even (loop 1 "es")`
- 4 `even (loop 2 "s")`
- 5 `even (loop 2 "")`
- 6 `even 2`

## Example: `hasEven` in Haskell

```
-- hasEven :: Char -> String -> Bool
hasEven char string = even (loop 0 string)
  where
    loop n ""          = n
    loop n (ch : chars) = if ch == char
                          then loop (n + 1) chars
                          else loop n  chars
```

Let's evaluate `hasEven 'e' "eyes"`:

- 1 `even (loop 0 "eyes")`
- 2 `even (loop 1 "yes")`
- 3 `even (loop 1 "es")`
- 4 `even (loop 2 "s")`
- 5 `even (loop 2 "")`
- 6 `even 2`
- 7 `True`

# Python

- Lambdas
- Dynamic Typing
- Garbage collection
- List comprehension

As unbelievable as it is, Excel has become turing complete!  
Simon Peyton Jones (Haskell) and Andy Gordon have added  
lambdas to Excel in 2021



- Anonymous functions
- Traits, which are the equivalents of Haskell's type classes
- Prioritizing immutability
- Pattern matching
- The type system itself is inspired on ML
- Macros which are the same as Scheme's macro system

- SwiftUI, apple's UI library has many functional philosophies
- Closures, which are close to lambdas
- Syntactic sugar for closures
- Enums and structs are algebraic datatypes!
- Pattern matching
- Optional chaining is based on the idea of Monads!

- Lambdas
- Java's generics was designed by Philip Wadler (Haskell) himself!
- Pattern matching

# React

React is heavily based on functional programming ideas like pure functions, immutability, avoiding mutation, and avoiding state!

# In industry

- NASA' copilot and ogma projects are written in Haskell
- Meta's spam filter is written in Haskell
- JP Morgan uses Haskell
- IOHK cardano uses Haskell
- Siemens uses Haskell
- Jane Street uses OCaml
- Epic Games is developing Verse to use in its metaverse
- X's backend is written Scala
- Spotify's backend is written in Scala
- Whatsapp is written in Erlang
- Discord is written in Elixir
- Tesla uses Haskell to generate C code for its cars
- And many more!

# More functional languages

- Idris2
- Flix
- Lean4
- OCaml
- Verse
- Racket
- Janet
- Common Lisp
- Scheme
- Clojure
- Gleam
- Scala
- Elixir
- OCaml
- F#