

Functional Languages

CSE 307 – Principles of Programming Languages

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Historical Origins

- The imperative and functional models grew out of work undertaken Alan Turing, Alonzo Church, Stephen Kleene, Emil Post, etc. ~1930s
 - different formalizations of the notion of an algorithm, or effective procedure, based on automata, symbolic manipulation, recursive function definitions, and combinatorics
- These results led Church to conjecture that any intuitively appealing model of computing would be equally powerful as well
 - this conjecture is known as Church's thesis

Historical Origins

- Turing's model of computing was the Turing machine a sort of pushdown automaton using an unbounded storage "tape"
- the Turing machine computes in an imperative way, by changing the values in cells of its tape – like variables just as a high level imperative program computes by changing the values of variables

Historical Origins

- Church's model of computing is called the lambda calculus
 - based on the notion of parameterized expressions with each parameter introduced by an occurrence of the letter λ .
 - Lambda calculus was the inspiration for functional programming.
 - Computation by substitution of parameters into expressions, just as computation by passing arguments to functions.
 - Constructive proof that transforms input into output.

Lambda Calculus

- λ = lambda
- lambda terms consist of:
 - variables (a)
 - lambda abstraction ($\lambda a.t$)
 - application ($t s$)
- Variables can be bound by lambda abstractions or free:
 - Example: in $\lambda a.ab$, a is bound, b is free.

Lambda Calculus

- alpha equivalence: $\lambda a.a = \lambda b.b$
- beta substitution: $(\lambda a.aa) b = bb$
 - problem: what happens if we substitute a free variable into a place where it would be bound?
 - Example: $(\lambda a.(y b. a b)) b c$
 - wrong: $(y b. b b) c$
 cc
 - right: use alpha equivalence to ensure this doesn't happen.
 $(\lambda a.(y d. a d)) b c$
 $(y d. b d) c$
 bc

Functional Programming Concepts

- Functional languages such as Lisp, Scheme, FP, ML, Miranda, and Haskell are an attempt to realize Church's lambda calculus in practical form as a programming language
- The key idea: do everything by composing functions
 - no mutable state
 - no side effects
- So how do you get anything done in a functional language?
 - Recursion takes the place of iteration
 - First-call functions take value inputs
 - Higher-order functions take a function as input

Functional Programming Concepts

- Necessary features, many of which are missing in some imperative languages:
 - high-order functions
 - powerful list facilities
 - structured function returns
 - fully general aggregates
 - garbage collection

Functional Programming

- LISP family of programming languages:
 - Pure (original) Lisp
 - Interlisp, MacLisp, Emacs Lisp
 - Common Lisp
 - Scheme
 - All of them use s-expression syntax: `(+ 1 2)`.
- LISP is old - dates back to 1958 - only Fortran is older.
- Anything in parentheses is a function call (unless quoted)
 - `(+ 1 2)` evaluates to 3
- `((+ 1 2))` <- error, since 3 is not a function.
 - by default, s-expressions are evaluated. We can use the quote special form to stop that: `(quote (1 2 3))`
 - short form: `'(1 2 3)` is a list containing `+`, 1, 2

Functional Programming Concepts

- Pure Lisp is purely functional; all other Lisps have imperative features
- All early Lisps dynamically scoped
 - Not clear whether this was deliberate or if it happened by accident
- Scheme and Common Lisp are statically scoped
 - Common Lisp provides dynamic scope as an option for explicitly-declared special functions
 - Common Lisp now THE standard Lisp
 - Very big; complicated

A Review/Overview of Scheme

- Interpreter runs a read-eval-print loop
- Things typed into the interpreter are evaluated (recursively) once
- Names: Scheme is generally a lot more liberal with the names it allows:
 - foo? bar+baz - <--- all valid names.
 - x\$_%L&=*! <--- valid name
 - names by default evaluate to their value

A Review/Overview of Scheme

- Conditional expressions:
 - $(\text{if } a \ b \ c) = \text{if } a \text{ then } b \text{ else } c$
 - Example: $(\text{if } (< \ 2 \ 3) \ 4 \ 5) \Rightarrow 4$
 - Example 2: only one of the sub-expressions evaluates (based on if the condition is true): $(\text{if } (> \ a \ b) \ (- \ a \ 100) \ (- \ b \ 100))$
- Imperative stuff
 - assignments
 - sequencing (begin)
 - iteration
 - I/O (read, display)

A Review/Overview of Scheme

- Lambda expressions:

- (lambda (x) (* x x))

- We can apply one or more parameters to it:

- ((lambda (x) (* x x)) 3 3)

- (* 3 3)

- 9

- Bindings: (let ((a 1) (b 2)) (+ a b))

- in let, all names are bound at once. So if we did:

- (let ((a 1) (b a)) (+ a b))

- we'd get name from outer scope. It prevents recursive calls.

- letrec puts bindings into effect while being computed (allows for recursive calls):

- (letrec ((fac (lambda (x) (if (= x 0) 1 (* x (fac (- x 1)))))) (fac 10))

A Review/Overview of Scheme

- Define binds a name in the global scope:

```
(define square (lambda (x) (* x x)))
```

- Lists:

- pull apart lists:

```
(car '(1 2 3)) -> 1
```

```
(cdr '(1 2 3)) -> (2 3)
```

```
(cons 1 '(2 3)) -> (1 2 3)
```

- Equality testing:

- `(= a b)` <- numeric equality
- `(eq? 1 2)` <- shallow comparison
- `(equal? a b)` <- deep comparison

A Review/Overview of Scheme

- Control-flow:
 - `(begin (display "foo") (display "bar"))`
- Special functions:
 - `eval` = takes a list and evaluates it.
A list: `'(+ 1 2)` $\rightarrow (+ 1 2)$
Evaluation of a list: `(eval '(+ 1 2))` $\rightarrow 3$
 - `apply` = take a lambda and list: calls the function with the list as an argument.

A Review/Overview of Scheme

- Evaluation order:

- applicative order:

- evaluates arguments before passing them to a function:

```
((lambda (x) (* x x)) (+ 1 2))
```

```
((lambda (x) (* x x) 3)
```

```
(* 3 3)
```

```
9
```

- normal order:

- passes in arguments before evaluating them:

```
((lambda (x) (* x x)) (+ 1 2))
```

```
(* (+ 1 2) (+ 1 2))
```

```
(* 3 3)
```

```
9
```

- Note: we might want normal order in some code.

```
(if-tuesday (do-tuesday)) // do-tuesday might print something and we want  
it only if it's Tuesday
```


A Review/Overview of Scheme

- `((lambda (x y) (if x (+ y y) 0) t (* 10 10))`

- Applicative order:

`((lambda (x y) (if x (+ y y)) t 100)`

`(if t (+ 100 100) 0)`

`(+ 100 100)`

`200`

- (four steps !)

- Normal Order:

`(if t (+ (* 10 10) (* 10 10)) 0)`

`(+ (* 10 10) (* 10 10))`

`(+ 100 (* 10 10))`

`(+ 100 100)`

`200`

- (five steps !)

A Review/Overview of Scheme

- What if we passed in nil instead?
- `((lambda (x y) (if x (+ y y) 0) nil (* 10 10))`

- Applicative:

```
((lambda (x y) (if x (+ y y)) nil 100)
(if nil (+ 100 100) 0)
0
```

- (three steps!)

- Normal

```
(if nil (+ (* 10 10) (* 10 10)) 0)
0
```

- (two steps)

- Both applicative and normal order can do extra work!
- Applicative is usually faster, and doesn't require us to pass around closures all the time.

A Review/Overview of Scheme

- Strict vs Non-Strict:
 - We can have code that has an undefined result.
 - (f) is undefined for
(define f (lambda () (f))) - infinite recursion
(define f (lambda () (/ 1 0))) - divide by 0.
 - A pure function is:
 - strict if it is undefined when any of its arguments is undefined,
 - non-strict if it is defined even when one of its arguments is undefined.
 - Applicative order == strict.
 - Normal order == can be non-strict.
 - ML, Scheme (except for macros) == strict.
 - Haskell == nonstrict.

A Review/Overview of Scheme

- Lazy Evaluation:
 - Combines non-strictness of normal-order evaluation with the speed of applicative order.
 - Idea: - Pass in closure. - Evaluate it once. - Store result in memo. - Next time, just return memo.
 - Example 1: `((lambda (a b) (if a (+ b b) nil)) t (expensivefunc))`
`(if t (+ (expensivefunc) (expensivefunc)) nil)`
`(+ (expensivefunc) (expensivefunc))`
`(+ 42 (expensivefunc))` <- takes a long time.
`(+ 42 42)` <- very fast.
84
 - Example2: `((lambda (a b) (if a (+ b b) nil)) nil (expensivefunc))`
`(if nil (+ (expensivefunc) (expensivefunc)) nil)`
nil → never evaluated expensivefunc! win!

Currying

Named for Haskell Curry

- Example: let a function add that take two arguments:

```
int add(int a, int b) { return a + b; }
```

- with the type signature:

```
(int, int) -> int , i.e., takes 2 integers, returns an int.
```

- We can curry this, to create a function with signature:

```
int -> (int -> int)
```

- using the curried version:

```
f = add(1)
```

```
print f(2)
```

```
-> prints out 3.
```

- Really useful in practice, even in non-fp languages.
- Some languages use currying as their main function-calling semantics (ML): **fun add a b : int = a + b;** ML's calling conventions make this easier to work with: **add 1**

add 1 2 (There's no need to delimit arguments.)

Pattern Matching

- It's common for FP languages to include pattern matching operations:

- matching on value,
- matching on type,
- matching on structure (useful for lists).

- ML example:

```
fun sum_even l =  
  case l of  
    nil => 0  
  | b :: nil => 0  
  | a :: b :: t => h + sum_even t;
```

Memoization

- Caching Results of Previous Computations (LISP):
(defun fib (n) (if (<= n 1) 1 (+ (fib (- n 1)) (fib (- n 2)))))
(setf memo-fib (memo #'fib))
(funcall memo-fib 3)
=> 3
(fib 5)
=> 8
(fib 6)
=> 13)

LISP

(+ 2 2)

=> 4

(+ 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8 9 10)

=> 55

(- (+ 9000 900 90 9) (+ 5000 500 50 5))

=> 4444)

(append '(Pat Kim) '(Robin Sandy))

=> (PAT KIM ROBIN SANDY)

'(pat Kim)

=> (PAT KIM))

LISP

```
(setf p '(John Q Public))
```

```
(first p))
```

```
(rest p))
```

```
(second p))
```

```
(third p))
```

```
(fourth p))
```

```
(length p))
```

```
(setf names '((John Q Public) (Malcolm X) (Miss Scarlet))
```

```
(first (first names))
```

```
=> JOHN)
```

```
(apply #' + '(1 2 3 4))
```

```
=> 10
```

LISP

```
(remove 1 '(1 2 3 2 1 0 -1))
```

=> (2 3 2 0 -1)

- Destructive lists:

```
(setq x '(a b c))
```

```
(setq y '(1 2 3))
```

```
(nconc x y)
```

=> (a b c 1 2 3)

x

=> (a b c 1 2 3)

y

=> (1 2 3)

Functional Programming in Perspective

- Advantages of functional languages
 - lack of side effects makes programs easier to understand
 - lack of explicit evaluation order (in some languages) offers possibility of parallel evaluation (e.g. MultiLisp)
 - lack of side effects and explicit evaluation order simplifies some things for a compiler
 - programs are often surprisingly short
 - language can be extremely small and yet powerful

Functional Programming in Perspective

- Problems
 - difficult (but not impossible!) to implement efficiently on von Neumann machines
 - lots of copying of data through parameters
 - frequent procedure calls
 - heavy space use for recursion
 - requires garbage collection
 - requires a different mode of thinking by the programmer
 - difficult to integrate I/O into purely functional model

Functional Programming in Perspective

- Other languages are embracing and integrating the concepts of Functional Programming:
- Java 7 - Higher Order Functions:
 - Types: `#(int(int, int))`
 - Methods: `Math#add(int, int)` – static
`Math#add(int, int)` – dynamic method
`Math#()` - constructor
 - If an interface contains one method, then a method with the right signature can be an instance that implements that interface:
`button.addActionListener(this#onButton(ActionEvent))`
 - Also adds inner methods, anonymous inner methods.