

CONCEPTS OF
PROGRAMMING LANGUAGES

Chapter 15

Functional Programming Languages



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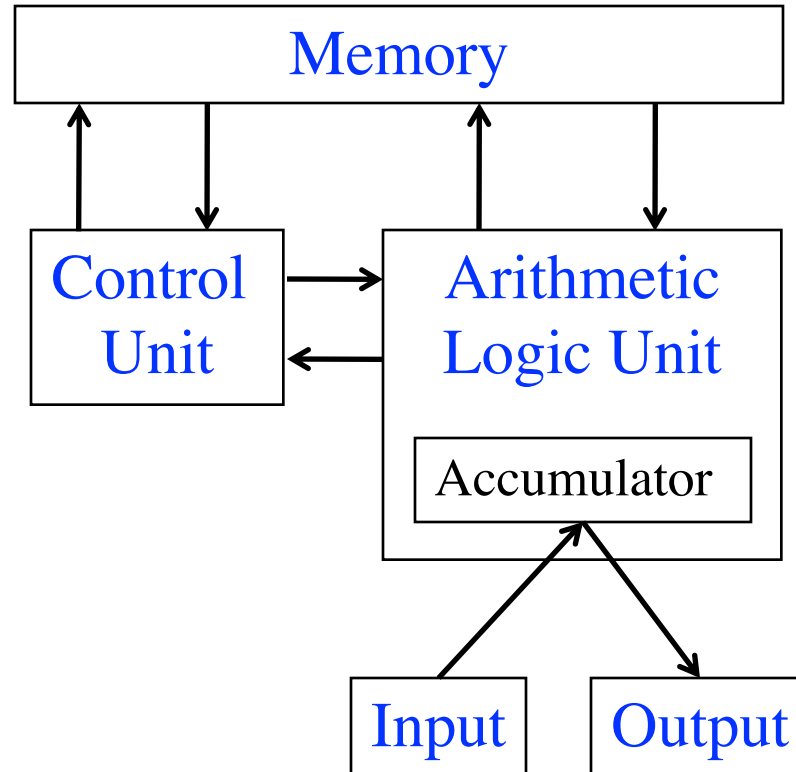
Chapter 15 Topics

- Introduction
- Mathematical Functions
- **Fundamentals** of Functional Programming Languages
- The **First** Functional Programming Language: **Lisp**
- Introduction to **Scheme**
- **Common Lisp**
- **ML**
- **Haskell**
- **F#**
- Support for Functional Programming in Primarily Imperative Languages
- Comparison of **Functional** and **Imperative** Languages

Introduction

- The design of the **imperative** languages is based directly on the *von Neumann architecture*
 - **Efficiency** is the primary concern, rather than the suitability of the language for software development
- The design of the **functional** languages is based on *mathematical functions*
 - A theoretical basis unconcerned with the architecture of the machines on which programs will run.

von Neumann Architecture



ref: http://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Von_Neumann_architecture

Mathematical Functions

- A mathematical function is a *mapping* of:
 - from a set of members / **input** – *domain set* (x)
 - to another set of **output** – *range set* (y)
- *Lambda expression*:
 - specifies the **parameter(s)** and the **mapping** of a **function** in the following form:

$\lambda (x) \quad x * x * x \quad \text{--input: } x ; \text{ output: } x^3$

for the **function** $\text{cube}(x) = x * x * x$.

Lambda Expressions

- Lambda expressions
 - describe **nameless** functions
 - apply parameter(s) by placing the parameter(s) after the expression
- e.g., $(\lambda (x) \ x * x * x) (2)$
- result ?
which evaluates to **8**.

Functional Forms

- A *higher-order function* or *functional form*:
 - takes functions as parameters
 - yields a function as its result
- Two common functional forms:
 - Function Composition
 - Apply-to-All.

Function Composition

- A functional form
 - takes two functions as parameters
 - yields a function whose value is the first actual parameter function applied to the application of the second

- Form: $h \equiv f \circ g$
 - : operator

which means $h(x) \equiv f(g(x))$

For $f(x) \equiv x + 2$ and $g(x) \equiv 3 * x$,

$h \equiv f \circ g$ yields $(3 * x) + 2$.

Apply-to-all

- A functional form
 - takes a single function as a parameter
 - yields a list of values obtained by applying the given function to each element of a list of parameters

Form: α

For $h(x) \equiv x * x$

$\alpha(h, (2, 3, 4))$

yields $(4, 9, 16)$.

Fundamentals of Functional Programming Languages (FPL)

- The **objective** of the design of a FPL
 - **mimic mathematical functions** to the greatest extent possible
- In an **imperative language**, **operations** are done and the **results** are stored in **variables** for later use
 - Management of **variables** is a constant **concern** and **source of complexity** for imperative programming
- In an FPL, **variables** are **not necessary**, as is the case in mathematics
- *Referential Transparency*
 - In an FPL, the evaluation of a **function** always produces the **same** result **given the same input parameters**.

Lisp: Data Types and Structures

- *Data object types*
 - originally only **atom** and **list**
- *List form*
 - parenthesized collections of **sublists** and/or **atoms**

e.g., (A B (C D) E)
- Lisp lists are stored internally as single-linked lists.

Lisp: Interpretation

- **Lambda notation** is used to specify **functions** and **function definitions**.
 - e.g., $(\lambda (x) \ x \ * \ x \ * \ x) \ (2)$
- **Function** and **data** have the **same form**.
 - If the **list** **(A B C)** is interpreted as **data**:
 - it is simple **list of three atoms**--A, B, and C
 - If it is interpreted as a **function**:
 - it means that the **function** named **A** is applied to the two parameters--B and C
- The **first Lisp interpreter** appeared only as a **demonstration of the universality of the computational capabilities** of the notation.

Origins of Scheme

- A mid-1970s **dialect** of Lisp
 - designed to be a **cleaner**, more **modern**, and **simpler** version than contemporary dialects of Lisp
- Uses only static scoping
- *Functions* are *first-class entities*/objects
 - They can be the values of **expressions** and **elements of lists**
 - They can **be assigned to variables**, passed as parameters, and **returned from functions**

Ref: first-class entity: can be constructed at run-time, passed as a parameter, returned from a subroutine, or assigned into a variable.

Scheme: Interpreter

- In **interactive mode**, the Scheme interpreter is an **infinite Read–Evaluate–Print Loop (REPL)**
 - This form of interpreter is also used by Python and Ruby
- Expressions are **interpreted** by the function **EVAL**
- Literals evaluate to themselves.

Scheme: Evaluation

- Parameters are evaluated in **no particular order**
- The **values** of the parameters are substituted into the **function body**
- The **function body** is **evaluated**
- The **value** of the **last expression** in the **body** is the **value** of the **function**.

Scheme: Primitive Functions

- Primitive Arithmetic Functions

- ABS, SQRT, REMAINDER, MIN, MAX, +, -, *, /

- e.g., (+ 5 2) yields 7

- (+ 5 4 6 2) yields 17

- Lambda Expressions

- Form is based on λ notation

- e.g., (LAMBDA (x) (* x x))

- x is called a bound variable

- Lambda expressions can be applied to parameters

- e.g., ((LAMBDA (x) (* x x)) 7) yields 49

- LAMBDA expressions can have any number of parameters

- e.g., (LAMBDA (a b c x) (+ (* a x x) (* b x) c))

- ((LAMBDA (a b c x) (+ (* a x x) (* b x) c)) 1 2 3 4)
yields 27

Scheme: Function *DEFINE*

- `DEFINE` – Two forms:

1. To bind a **symbol** to an **expression**

`(DEFINE symbol Expression)`

e.g., `(DEFINE pi 3.141593)`

`(DEFINE two_pi (* 2 pi))`

These symbols are **not variables** – they are like the names bound by Java's `final` declarations

2. To bind **names** to lambda expressions (`LAMBDA` is implicit)

`(DEFINE (function_name parameters) (Expression))`

e.g., `(DEFINE (square x) (* x x))`

`(square 5)` yields 25

Note: The evaluation process for `DEFINE` is different! The **first parameter** is **never evaluated**. The **second parameter** is evaluated and bound to the **first parameter**--square.

Scheme: Output Functions

- Usually not needed, because the interpreter always displays the result of a function evaluated at the top level (not nested)
- Scheme has **PRINTF**, which is similar to the `printf` function of C

Note: **explicit** input and output are **not** part of the pure functional programming model, because **input** operations change the state of the program and **output** operations have side effects.

Scheme: Numeric Predicate

- `#T` (or `#t`) is true and `#F` (or `#f`) is false (sometimes `()` is used for false)
- `=` , `<>` , `>` , `<` , `>=` , `<=`
- `EVEN?` , `ODD?` , `ZERO?` , `NEGATIVE?`
(is it even?, odd? zero?, negative?)
- The `NOT` function inverts the logic of a Boolean expression.

Scheme: Control Flow

- Selection– the special form, **IF**

(**IF** predicate then_exp else_exp)

e.g., (**IF** (<> count 0)
 (/ sum count)
 0)

- **COND** function: returns the value of the expression in the first pair whose predicate evaluates to true

```
(DEFINE (leap? year)
  (COND
    ((ZERO? (MODULO year 400)) #T) // pred1 expr1
    ((ZERO? (MODULO year 100)) #F) // pred2 expr2
    ((ZERO? (MODULO year 4)) #T) // pred3 expr3
    (ELSE #F) // else exprn
  ))
```

Scheme: Function – QUOTE, CONS

- **QUOTE** – takes one parameter; returns the parameter without evaluation
 - **QUOTE** is required because the Scheme interpreter, named **EVAL**, always evaluates parameters to function applications before applying the function.
 - **QUOTE** is used to avoid parameter evaluation when it is not appropriate
 - **QUOTE** can be abbreviated with the **apostrophe** prefix operator
e.g.,: ' (A B) is equivalent to (**QUOTE** (A B))
- **CONS** takes (concatenates) two parameters
 - the first: either an atom or a list
 - the second: a list;
 - returns a new list that includes the first parameter as its first element and the second parameter as the remainder of its result.

Scheme: Function – CAR, CDR

- **CAR** takes a **list** parameter; returns the **first element** of **that list**

e.g., (CAR ' (A B C)) yields **A**

(CAR ' ((A B) C D)) yields **(A B)**

- **CDR** takes a **list** parameter; returns the **list** after **removing** its first element

e.g., (CDR ' (A B C)) yields **(B C)**

(CDR ' ((A B) C D)) yields **(C D)** .

Scheme: Function Examples

- Examples:

(CAR '(A B C D)) returns (A B)

(CAR 'A) returns **error**

(CDR '(A B C D)) returns (C D)

(CDR 'A) returns **error**

(CDR '(A)) returns ()

(CONS '() '(A B)) returns (() A B)

(CONS '(A B) '(C D)) returns ((A B) C D)

(CONS 'A 'B) returns (A . B) a dotted pair.

Note: ref: <https://classes.soe.ucsc.edu/cms112/Spring03/languages/scheme/SchemeTutorialA.html>

Scheme: Function – LIST

- LIST is a function for building a list from any number of parameters

e.g., (LIST 'apple 'orange 'grape) returns
(apple orange grape) .

Scheme: Predicate Function – EQ?

- **EQ?** takes **two expressions** as **parameters** (usually two atoms);
 - returns **#T** if both parameters have the **same pointer value**—pointing to the same **atom** or **list**;
 - otherwise **#F**
 - **EQ?** does **not** work for **numeric** atoms

```
(EQ? 'A 'A) yields #T
```

```
(EQ? 'A 'B) yields #F
```

```
(EQ? 'A '(A B)) yields #F
```

```
(EQ? '(A B) '(A B)) yields #F
```

```
(EQ? 3.4 (+ 3 0.4)) yields #F
```

```
(define x '(a b)) (define y '(b a))
```

```
(define x y) (EQ? x y) yields #T
```

Scheme: Predicate Function – EQV?

- `EQV?` is like `EQ?`
- except that it **works** for **both** symbolic and numeric atoms;
- it is a *value* comparison, **not** a **pointer** comparison

`(EQV? 3 3)` yields **#T**

`(EQV? 'A 3)` yields **#F**

`(EQV? 3.4 (+ 3 0.4))` yields **#T**

`(EQV? 3.0 3)` yields **#F**

(floats and integers are different).

Scheme: Predicate Functions

- `LIST?` takes one parameter;
 - returns `#T` if the parameter is a **list**;
 - otherwise `#F`
 - e.g.,
`(LIST? ' ())` yields `#T`
- `NULL?` takes one parameter;
 - returns `#T` if the parameter is an **empty list**;
 - otherwise `#F`
 - e.g.,
`(NULL? ' (()))` yields `#F`

Scheme: Function – member

- **member** takes an **atom** and a **simple list**; **returns** **#T** if the **atom** is in the **list**; **#F** otherwise

```
(DEFINE (member atm a_list)
(COND
  ((NULL? a_list) #F)
  ((EQ? atm (CAR a_list)) #T)
  ((ELSE (member atm (CDR a_list)))
  ))
```

e.g. ,

`(member `A `(A B C))` **yields** **#T**

Scheme: Function – equalsimp

- **equalsimp** takes two **simple lists** as parameters; returns **#T** if the two simple lists are equal; **#F** otherwise

```
(DEFINE (equalsimp list1 list2)
  (COND
    ((NULL? list1) (NULL? list2))
    ((NULL? list2) #F)
    ((EQ? (CAR list1) (CAR list2))
      (equalsimp (CDR list1) (CDR list2)))
    (ELSE #F)
  ))
```

e.g. ,

(**equalsimp** `(A B) `(A B)) **yields** **#T**

Scheme: Function – equal

- **equal** takes two **general lists** as parameters; returns **#T** if the two lists are equal; **#F** otherwise

```
(DEFINE (equal list1 list2)
  (COND
    ((NOT (LIST? list1)) (EQ? list1 list2))
    ((NOT (LIST? list2)) #F)
    ((NULL? list1) (NULL? list2))
    ((NULL? list2) #F)
    ((equal (CAR list1) (CAR list2))
      (equal (CDR list1) (CDR list2)))
    (ELSE #F)
  ))
```

e.g.,

(equal `(A (B C D)) `(A (B C D))) yields **#T**

Scheme: Function – append

- **append** takes two **lists** as parameters; returns the **first parameter list** with **the elements of the second parameter list** appended at the end

```
(DEFINE (append list1 list2)
  (COND
    ((NULL? list1) list2)
    (ELSE (CONS (CAR list1)
                  (append (CDR list1) list2))))
  ) )
```

e.g. ,

(append ` (A B) ` (C D)) yields (A B C D)

Scheme: Function – LET

- General form:

```
(LET (  
  (name_1 expression_1)  
  (name_2 expression_2)  
  ...  
  (name_n expression_n)  
)  
  body )
```

- LET is actually shorthand for a LAMBDA expression applied to a parameter

```
(LET ((alpha 7)) (* 5 alpha))
```

is the same as:

```
((LAMBDA (alpha) (* 5 alpha)) 7)
```


Scheme: LET Example

```
(DEFINE (quadratic_roots a b c)
  (LET (
    (root_part_over_2a
      (/ (SQRT (- (* b b) (* 4 a c))) (* 2 a)))
    (minus_b_over_2a
      (/ (- 0 b) (* 2 a)))
  )
  (LIST (+ minus_b_over_2a root_part_over_2a)
        (- minus_b_over_2a root_part_over_2a))
  ))
```

e.g., $(-b + \sqrt{b^2-4ac})/2a$, $(-b - \sqrt{b^2-4ac})/2a$
(quadratic_roots 1 4 4) yields **(-2 -2)**.

Scheme: Tail Recursion

- Definition: A function is *tail recursive* if its recursive call is the last operation in the function
- A tail recursive function can be automatically converted by a compiler to use iteration, making it faster
- Scheme language systems convert all tail recursive functions to use iteration.

Scheme: Simple Iteration

```
(DEFINE (list-count n )
  (LET loop (( i n ))                                ;; i = n
    (if ( > i 0 )                                     ;; loop () body
        (cons i (loop (- i 1)) )
        ` ( )
    )
  )
)
;; (list-count 10) yields (10 9 8 7 6 5 4 3 2 1) .
```

Scheme: Tail Recursion

- rewriting a function to make it **tail recursive**, using **helper** a function

Original:

```
(DEFINE (factorial n)
  (IF (<= n 0)
      1
      (* n (factorial (- n 1)))))
```

e.g., (factorial 3) yields **6**

Tail recursive:

```
(DEFINE (facthelper n factpartial)
  (IF (<= n 0)
      factpartial
      (facthelper ((- n 1) (* n factpartial)))))

(DEFINE (factorial n)
  (facthelper n 1))
```

Scheme: Functional Form – Composition

- Composition

- If h is the composition of f and g , $h(x) = f(g(x))$

```
(DEFINE (g x) (* 3 x))
```

```
(DEFINE (f x) (+ 2 x))
```

```
(DEFINE (h x) (+ 2 (* 3 x))) ;; the composition
```

- In Scheme, the functional composition function **compose** can be written:

```
(DEFINE (compose f g) (LAMBDA (x) (f (g (x)))))
```

e.g., `((compose CAR CDR) '(a b c d))` yields **c**

```
(DEFINE (third a_list)
```

```
  ((compose CAR (compose CDR CDR)) a_list))
```

is equivalent to **CADDR**

e.g., `(third '(a b c d))` yields **c**

Scheme: Functional form Apply-to-All

- Apply to All – one form in Scheme is **map**
 - Applies the given function to **all elements** of the given list;

```
(DEFINE (map fun a_list)
  (COND
    ((NULL? a_list) '())
    (ELSE (CONS (fun (CAR a_list))
                  (map fun (CDR a_list))))
  ))
```

e.g., (map (LAMBDA (num) (* num num num)) '(3 4 2 6))
yields? **(27 64 8 216)**
;; fun == (LAMBDA (num) (* num num num)).

Scheme: Functions That Build Code

- It is possible in Scheme to define a function that builds Scheme code and requests its interpretation
- This is possible because the interpreter is a user-available function, **EVAL**.

Scheme: Adding a List of Numbers

```
(DEFINE (adder a_list)
  (COND
    ((NULL? a_list) 0)
    (ELSE (EVAL (CONS '+ a_list) user-
initial-environment)))
))
```

- e.g., (adder ' (3 4 6)) Builds (+ 3 4 6) = 13
- The parameter is a list of numbers to be added; **adder** inserts a + operator and evaluates the list:
 - Use **CONS** to insert the atom + into the list of numbers.
 - Be sure that + is quoted to prevent evaluation
 - Submit the new list to **EVAL** for evaluation
 - user-initial-environment is required in **scheme v4** or later
 - Reference manual: <https://groups.csail.mit.edu/mac/ftplib/mit-scheme/7.7/7.7.1/doc-pdf/scheme.pdf>

Common Lisp

- A combination of many of the features of the popular dialects of Lisp around in the early 1980s
- A large and complex language--the opposite of Scheme
- Features include:
 - records
 - arrays
 - complex numbers
 - character strings
 - powerful I/O capabilities
 - packages with access control
 - iterative control statements

Common Lisp

- Macros
 - Create their effect in two steps:
 - Expand the macro
 - Evaluate the expanded macro
- Some of the **predefined** functions of Common Lisp are actually **macros**
- Users can **define their own macros** with **DEFMACRO**
(**defmacro** *name* (*parameters*)
 "optional documentation string."
 body-form)
e.g., (**defmacro** mna (a b) "multiplies and adds" `(+ ,a (* ,b 3)))

Common Lisp

- Backquote operator (```)
 - Similar to the Scheme's `QUOTE`, except that some parts of the parameter can be unquoted by preceding them with commas

``(a (* 3 4) c)` evaluates to `(a (* 3 4) c)`

``(a , (* 3 4) c)` evaluates to `(a 12 c)`

Common Lisp

- Common Lisp has a **symbol type** (similar to that of Ruby)
 - The **reserved words**, e.g., *nil*, are symbols that evaluate to themselves
 - **Symbols have attributes:**
 - name, package, property list, value, function

Ref: http://www.lispworks.com/documentation/HyperSpec/Body/t_symbol.htm#symbol

- Symbols are used for their **object identity** to name various **entities** in Common Lisp, including (but not limited to) linguistic entities such as variables and functions.
- Symbols can be **collected together** into **packages**. A symbol is said to be interned in a package if it is accessible in that package; the same symbol can be interned in more than one package. If a **symbol** is not interned in any package, it is called **uninterned**.

ML (MetaLanguage)

- A static-scoped functional language with syntax that is closer to Pascal than to Lisp
- Uses type declarations, but also does *type inferencing* to determine the types of undeclared variables
- It is strongly typed, whereas Scheme is essentially typeless
- Does not have imperative-style variables
- Includes exception handling and a module facility for implementing abstract data types
- Includes lists and list operations

ML: Function

- Function declaration form:

fun *name* (*formal parameters*) = *expression*;

e.g., **fun** *cube* (*x* : **int**) = *x* * *x* * *x*;

- The **type** could be attached to **return value**, as in
fun *cube* (*x* : **int**) : **int** = *x* * *x* * *x*;
- With no type specified, it would **default to int**
(the default for numeric values)
- User-defined overloaded functions are **not allowed**, so if we wanted a *cube* function for **float** parameters, it would need to **have a different name**

ML: if-else, Pattern match

- if-then-else

if *expression* **then** *then_expression*
else *else_expression*

where **expression** must evaluate to a **Boolean** value

e.g., **fun** fact n = **if** n = 0 **then** 1
 else n * fact (n-1)

- **Pattern matching** is used to allow a function to operate on different parameter forms

e.g., **fun** fact(0) = 1
 | fact(1) = 1
 | fact(n : **int**) : **int** = n * fact(n - 1)

Note: | : OR

ML: List

- Lists

Literal lists are specified in brackets

e.g., [3, 5, 7]

[] is the empty list

- CONS is the binary infix operator, ::

4 :: [3, 5, 7], which evaluates to [4, 3, 5, 7]

- CAR is the unary operator **hd** (head)

- CDR is the unary operator **tl** (tail)

e.g., **fun** length([]) = 0

| length(h :: t) = 1 + length(t);

(* note: h::t is **head** and **tail** *)

fun append([], list2) = list2

| append(h :: t, list2) = h :: append(t, list2);

ML: `val`

- The `val` statement binds a name to a value (similar to `DEFINE` in Scheme)
 - `val` likes an assignment statement in an imperative language
 - If there are two `val` statements for the same identifier, the first is hidden by the second
 - `val` statements are often used in `let` constructs

```
let
  val radius = 2.7
  val pi = 3.14159
in
  pi * radius * radius
end;
```

Ref: https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Standard_ML

ML: filter

- **filter**
 - A **higher-order** filtering function for lists
 - Takes a **predicate function** as its **parameter**, often in the form of a **lambda expression**
 - **Lambda expressions** are defined like functions, except with the reserved word **fn**

e.g.,

```
filter(fn(x) => x < 100, [25, 1, 711, 50, 100]);
```

This returns [25, 1, 50]

ML: map

- **map**
 - A **higher-order** function that takes a **single parameter**--a **function**
 - Applies the **parameter function** to each **element** of a **list** and **returns a list of results**

e.g., `fun cube x = x * x * x;`

`val cubeList = map cube;`

`val newList = cubeList [1, 3, 5];`

This sets `newList` to `[1, 27, 125]`

- Alternative: use a lambda expression

`val newList = map (fn x => x * x * x, [1, 3, 5]);`

ML: operator \circ

- Function Composition
 - Use the operator, \circ

```
val h = g o f;
```

ML: Currying

- Currying

- make a function in several "stages", each taking an input and producing a new function

e.g.,

```
fun add a = fn b => a+b; == fun add a b = a + b;  
when call add 2, get fun b => 2 + b returned  
when call add 2 3, it actually calls (add 2) 3  
which yields 5
```

ML: Partial Evaluation

- Partial Evaluation

- Curried functions can be used to create new functions by partial evaluation
- Partial evaluation means that the function is evaluated with actual parameters for one or more of the leftmost actual parameters

```
fun add5 x add 5 x;
```

- takes the actual parameter 5 and evaluates the add function with 5 as the value of its first formal parameter.
- returns a function that adds 5 to its single parameter

```
val num = add5 10; (* sets num to 15 *)
```

Haskell

- Similar to ML (syntax, static scoped, strongly typed, type inferencing, pattern matching)
- Different from ML (and most other functional languages) is that it is *purely functional* (e.g., no variables, no assignment statements, and no side effects of any kind)

Syntax differences from ML

```
fact 0 = 1
fact 1 = 1
fact n = n * fact (n - 1)
```

```
fib 0 = 0
fib 1 = 1
fib (n + 2) = fib (n + 1) + fib n
-- Fibonacci sequences
```

ML:

```
fun fact( n : int ) : int =
  if n = 0 then 1
  else n * fact (n - 1);
```

Haskell: Function Definitions

```
fact n
```

```
|  n == 0 = 1  
|  n == 1 = 1  
|  n > 1 = n * fact (n - 1)
```

```
sub n
```

```
|  n < 10      = 0  
|  n > 100     = 2  
|  otherwise   = 1
```

```
square x = x * x
```

Haskell supports **polymorphism**, this works for **any** numeric type of **x**

Haskell: Lists

- List notation: Put elements in brackets
e.g., `directions = ["north", "south", "east", "west"]`
- Length: `#`
e.g., `#directions` yields `4`
- Arithmetic series with `..` operator
e.g., `[2, 4..10]` yields `[2, 4, 6, 8, 10]`
- Concatenation is with `++` for two lists
e.g., `[1, 3] ++ [5, 7]` yields `[1, 3, 5, 7]`
- CONS via `:` colon operator for a head element + list
e.g., `1:[3, 5, 7]` yields `[1, 3, 5, 7]`

Haskell: Pattern Parameters

- Pattern Parameters

```
product [] = 1
product (a:x) = a * product x
```

- Factorial: `fact n = product [1..n]`

- List Comprehensions

set notation: `[body | qualifiers]`

e.g., `[n * n * n | n <- [1..50]]`

The qualifier in this example has the form of a *generator*. It could be in the form of a **test**

```
factors n = [i | i <- [1..n `div` 2], n `mod` i == 0]
```

e.g., `factors(10)` yields `[1, 2, 5]`

note: the **backticks** ``` specify **function** as a **binary** operator.

`[1..n `div` 2] = [1,2,3,4,5], for n = 10.`

Haskell: Quicksort

```
sort [] = []
sort (h:t) =
    sort [b | b <- t, b <= h]
  ++ [h]
  ++ sort [b | b <- t, b > h]
```

e.g., `sort [3,1,5,2,4]` yields `[1,2,3,4,5]`

Illustrates the **concision** of Haskell:
shorter and simpler than **imperative**
programming language

Haskell: Lazy Evaluation

- A language is *strict* if it requires **all actual** parameters to be **fully evaluated**
- A language is *nonstrict* if it does not have the strict requirement
- Nonstrict languages are more **efficient** and allow some **interesting** capabilities – *infinite lists*
- Lazy evaluation – **Only compute those values that are necessary**

- Positive numbers

```
positives = [0..]
```

- Determining if 16 is a square number

```
member b [] = False
```

```
member b (a:x) = (a == b) || member b x
```

```
-- note:  a:x  head:tail;  || = Or
```

```
squares = [n * n | n ← [0..]]
```

```
member 16 squares  yields True
```

Haskell: Member Revisited

- The member function could be written as:

```
member b [] = False
member b (a:x) = (a == b) || member b x
```

- However, this would only work if the parameter to squares was a perfect square; if not, it will keep generating them forever. The following version will always work:

```
member2 n (m:x)
  | m < n = member2 n x
  | m == n = True
  | otherwise = False
-- note: check if 'n' is a square number
member2 15 squares yields False
```

Ref: <https://www.haskell.org/>

F#

- Based on OCaml, which is a descendant of ML and Haskell
- Fundamentally a functional language, but with imperative features and supports OOP
- Has a full-featured IDE, an extensive library of utilities, and interoperates with other .NET languages
- Includes tuples, lists, discriminated unions, records, and both mutable and immutable arrays
- Supports generic sequences, whose values can be created with generators and through iteration

Notes: OCaml: <https://ocaml.org>

discriminated unions: type checking

F#: Sequences

- Generation of **sequence values** is **lazy**

```
let y = seq {0..100000000}  
sets y to [0; 1; 2; 3;...]
```

- Default **stepsize** is 1, but it can be any number

```
let seq1 = seq {1..2..7}  
sets seq1 to [1; 3; 5; 7]
```

- **Iterators** – not **lazy** for **lists** and **arrays**

```
let cubes = seq {for i in 1..4 -> (i, i * i * i)}  
sets cubes to a list [(1, 1); (2, 8); (3, 27); (4, 64)].
```

F#: Functions

- Use **fun** with **lambda** expressions

e.g.,

```
fun a b -> a / b
```

- Use **let** with **indentation**

e.g.,

```
let f =
```

```
    let pi = 3.14159
```

```
    let twoPi = 2.0 * pi
```

```
    twoPi
```


F#: Functions

- Recursive function must include **rec** reserved word

e.g., **let rec** fact x =
 if x <= 1 then 1
 else x * fact (x-1)

- Names in functions can be out-scoped:

e.g., **let** x4 x =
 let x = x * x
 let x = x * x
 x

- The **first let** in the body of x4 function creates a new version of x
- the **second let** in the body creates another x, terminating the scope of the x in the previous **let**.

F#: Functional Operators

- Pipeline (`|>`)

- A binary operator that sends the value of its left operand to the **last** parameter of the call (the right operand)

```
let myNums = [1; 2; 3; 4; 5]
let evenTimesFive = myNums
    |> List.filter (fun n -> n % 2 = 0)
    |> List.map (fun n -> 5 * n)
```

The return value is `[10; 20]`

F#: Functional Operators

- Composition ($>>$)
 - builds a function that applies its left operand to a given parameter (a function)
 - then passes the result returned from the function to its right operand (another function)
 - the F# expression $(f >> g) x$ is equivalent to the mathematical expression $g(f(x))$
- Curried Functions

```
let add a b = a + b
```

```
let add5 = add 5
```

Support for Functional Programming in Primarily Imperative Languages

- Anonymous functions (lambda expressions)
 - JavaScript: leave the name out of a function definition. e.g., `(function () {var x="Hello!!"; })()`;
 - C#: `i => (i % 2) == 0` (returns true or false depending on whether the parameter is even or odd)
 - Python: `lambda a, b : 2 * a - b`

Support for Functional Programming in Primarily Imperative Languages

- Python supports the higher-order functions `filter` and `map` (often use lambda expressions as their first parameters)

e.g., `map(lambda x : x ** 3, [2, 4, 6, 8])`

Returns `[8, 64, 216, 512]`

- Ruby Blocks
 - A block can be converted to a subprogram object with `lambda`
`times = lambda {|a, b| a * b}`
e.g., `x = times.(3, 4)` (sets `x` to 12)
 - `times` can be curried with
`times5 = times.curry.(5)`
e.g., `x5 = times5.(3)` (sets `x5` to 15)

Comparing Functional and Imperative Languages

- Imperative Languages:
 - Efficient execution
 - Complex semantics
 - Complex syntax
 - Concurrency is programmer designed
- Functional Languages:
 - Simple semantics
 - Simple syntax
 - Less efficient execution
 - Programs can automatically be made concurrent