# **Introduction to Functional Programming**

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Autumn School in Beijing, October 2023

# Part 0

Aims and objectives

### **0.1** Aims

- functional programming is programming with values: value-oriented programming
- no 'actions', no side-effects a radical departure from ordinary (imperative or OO) programming
- surprisingly, it is a powerful (and fun!) paradigm
- better ways of gluing programs together: component-oriented programming
- ideas are applicable in ordinary programming languages too:
   aim to introduce you to the ideas, to improve your day-to-day programming
- (I don't expect you all to become functional programmers)

### 0.2 Motivation

LISP is worth learning [because of] the profound enlightenment experience you will have when you finally get it. That experience will make you a better programmer for the rest of your days, even if you never actually use LISP itself a lot.

Eric S. Raymond, American computer programmer (1957-)

How to Become a Hacker

www.catb.org/~esr/faqs/hacker-howto.html

You can never understand one language until you understand at least two.

Ronald Searle, British artist (1920–2011)

### 0.3 Contents

- 1. value-oriented programming
- 2. lists and other algebraic datatypes
- **3.** types, polymorphism, type classes
- **4.** monads and applicative functors
- 5. laziness, infinite data structures, co-programming

Concurrently, John Hughes will be talking about *property-based testing* using *QuickCheck*, illustrating most of these ideas.

### 0.4 Expressions vs statements

- in ordinary programming languages the world is divided into a world of statements and a world of expressions
- statements:
  - ► x:=E, s1; s2, **while** b **do** s
  - execution order is important

$$i:=i+1$$
;  $a:=a*i \neq a:=a*i$ ;  $i:=i+1$ 

- expressions:
  - ▶ eg a+b\*c, a and not b
  - evaluation order is unimportant (assuming no side-effects): in (2\*a\*y+b) \* (2\*a\*y+c), evaluate either parenthesis first (or both together!)

### 0.4 Optimizations

- useful optimizations:
  - branch merging:

```
if b then p else p end
= p
```

common subexpression elimination:

```
z := (2*a*y+b)*(2*a*y+c)
= t := 2*a*y; z := (t+b)*(t+c)
```

- parallel execution: evaluate subexpressions concurrently
- most optimizations require *referential transparency* 
  - ▶ all that matters about the expression is its value
  - follows from 'no side effects'
  - ...which follows from 'no :='
  - ▶ with assignments, side-effect-freeness is very hard to check

### 0.4 Brevity

- expressions are much shorter and simpler than the corresponding statements
- eg compare using expression:

```
z := (2*a*y+b)*(2*a*y+c)
```

#### with not using expressions:

```
ac := 2; ac *= a; ac *= y; ac += b; t := ac;
ac := 2; ac *= a; ac *= y; ac += c; ac *= t;
z := ac
```

- but in order to discard statements, the expression language must be extended
- functional programming is programming with an extended expression language

### Part 1

# Value-oriented programming

### 1.1 Programs

We'll be using the *GHCi* implementation of *Haskell*. A *script* is essentially just a collection of definitions:

```
-- compute the square of an integer square:: Integer \rightarrow Integer square x = x \times x
```

-- smaller of two arguments smaller:: (Integer, Integer)  $\rightarrow$  Integer smaller (x, y) = **if**  $x \le y$  **then** x **else** y

Bigger *programs* are divided into *modules*. A standalone program includes a 'main' expression.

#### 1.1 REPL

Value-oriented programming accommodates a *read-eval-print loop* (REPL):

```
Prelude : l sample.hs
Ok, one module loaded.
Main \ 42
42
Main \rangle 6 \times 7
42
Main \rangle square 7 – smaller (3,4) – square (smaller (2,3))
42
Main > square 3141592654
9869604403666763716
```

4 ≣ ▶

(I typed the things in green.)

### 1.1 Layout

- elegant and unobtrusive syntax
- structure obtained by layout, not punctuation
- all definitions in same scope must start in the same column
- indentation from start of definition implies continuation

```
smaller :: (Integer, Integer) \rightarrow Integer
smaller (x, y)
= if
x \le y
then
x
else
```

- blank lines around code in literate script!
- use spaces, not tabs!

#### 1.2 Evaluation

- interpreter evaluates expression by reducing to simplest possible form
- reduction is rewriting using meaning-preserving simplifications: replacing equals by equals

```
square (3 + 4)

⇒ { definition of + }
square 7

⇒ { definition of square }
7 \times 7

⇒ { definition of \times }
```

- expression 49 cannot be reduced any further: normal form
- *applicative order* evaluation: reduce arguments before expanding function definition (call by value, eager evaluation)

#### 1.2 Alternative evaluation orders

• other evaluation orders are possible:

```
square (3 + 4)
\Rightarrow \{ definition of square \} 
(3 + 4) \times (3 + 4)
\Rightarrow \{ definition of + \} 
7 \times (3 + 4)
\Rightarrow \{ definition of + \} 
7 \times 7
\Rightarrow \{ definition of \times \} 
49
```

- final result is the same: if two evaluation orders terminate, both yield the same result (*confluence*)
- *normal order* evaluation: expand function definition before reducing arguments (call by need, lazy evaluation)

### 1.2 Non-terminating evaluations

consider script

```
three :: Integer \rightarrow Integer
three x = 3 -- NB argument unused
infinity :: Integer
infinity = 1 + infinity
```

• two different evaluation orders:

```
three infinity three infinity <math display="block"> \Rightarrow \{ defn \ of \ infinity \} \Rightarrow \{ defn \ of \ three \} 
three \ (1 + infinity) 
 \Rightarrow \{ defn \ of \ infinity \} 
three \ (1 + (1 + infinity))
```

not all evaluation orders terminate, even on the same expression;
 Haskell uses lazy evaluation

#### 1.3 Functions

- naturally, FP is a matter of functions
- script defines *functions* (*square*, *smaller*)
- (script actually defines *values*; indeed, in FP functions are values)
- function transforms (one or more) arguments into result
- deterministic: same arguments always give same result
- may be *partial*: result may sometimes be undefined  $(\bot)$
- eg cosine, square root; distance between two cities; compiler; text formatter; process controller

# 1.3 Function types

- *type declaration* in script specifies type of function
- eg square :: Integer → Integer
- in general,  $f:: A \to B$  indicates that function f takes arguments of type A and returns results of type B
- *apply* function to argument: *f x*
- sometimes parentheses are necessary: square (3 + 4)
   (function application is an operator, binding more tightly than +)
- be careful not to confuse the function f with the value f x

#### 1.3 Lambda

- notation for anonymous functions
- eg  $\lambda x \rightarrow x \times x$  as another way of writing *square*
- eg  $\lambda a b \rightarrow a$  (which we'll call *const* later)
- ASCII '\' is nearest equivalent to Greek  $\lambda$
- from Church's  $\lambda$ -calculus theory of computability (1941)

# 1.3 Declaration vs expression style

- Haskell is a committee language
- Haskell supports two different programming styles
- *declaration style*: using equations, patterns and expressions

```
quad :: Integer \rightarrow Integer

quad x = square x \times square x
```

• *expression style*: emphasising the use of expressions

```
quad:: Integer \rightarrow Integer
quad = \lambda x \rightarrow square x \times square x
```

- expression style is often more flexible
- experienced programmers use both simultaneously

# 1.3 Extensionality

- two functions are equal (f = g) if they give equal results for all arguments (f x = g x for every x of the right type)
- eg these two functions are equal:

```
double, double':: Integer \rightarrow Integer double x = x + x double' x = 2 \times x
```

- the important thing about a function is its mapping from arguments to results
- intentional properties (eg how a mapping is described) are irrelevant

# 1.3 Currying

replace single structured argument by several simpler ones

```
add:: (Integer, Integer) \rightarrow Integer
add (x, y) = x + y
add':: Integer \rightarrow (Integer \rightarrow Integer)
add' x y = x + y
```

- useful for reducing number of parentheses
- *add* takes a pair of *Integers* and returns an *Integer*
- add' takes an Integer and returns a function of type Integer → Integer
- eg add' 3 is a function; (add' 3) 4 reduces to 7
- can be written just *add*' 3 4 (see why shortly)

### 1.4 Operators

- functions with alphabetic names are *prefix*: *f* 3 4
- functions with symbolic names are *infix*: 3 + 4
- make an alphabetic name infix by enclosing in backquotes: 17 'mod' 10
- make symbolic operator prefix (and curried) with parentheses: (+) 3 4
- thus, add' = (+)
- extend notion to include one argument too: sectioning
- eg (1/) is the reciprocal function, (>0) is the positivity test

# 1.4 Associativity

- why operators at all? why not prefix notation?
- there is a problem of ambiguity:

$$x \otimes y \otimes z$$

- —does this mean  $(x \otimes y) \otimes z$  or  $x \otimes (y \otimes z)$ ?
- sometimes it doesn't matter, eg addition

$$(x + y) + z = x + (y + z)$$

the operator + is associative

### 1.4 Association

- some operators are not associative (−, /, ↑)
- to disambiguate without parentheses, operators may associate to the left or right
- eg subtraction associates to the left: 5 4 2 = -1
- function application associates to the left: *f a b* means (*f a*) *b*
- function type operator associates to the right:

  \*Integer → Integer → Integer means Integer → (Integer → Integer)

### 1.4 Precedence

association does not help when operators are mixed

$$x \oplus y \otimes z$$

what does this mean:  $(x \oplus y) \otimes z$  or  $x \oplus (y \otimes z)$ ?

- to disambiguate without parentheses, we use *precedence* (binding power)
- ullet eg imes has higher precedence (binds more tightly) than +

• function application can be seen as an operator, and has the highest precedence, so *square* 3 + 4 = 13

### 1.4 Composition

- glue functions together with function composition
- defined as follows:

```
(∘) :: (Integer → Integer) → (Integer → Integer) → (Integer → Integer) f \circ g = \lambda x \rightarrow f(g x)
```

- eg function *square double* takes 3 to 36
- equivalent definition: (o) fgx = f(gx)
- associative, so parentheses not needed in  $f \circ g \circ h$
- (actually has a different type; explained later)

### 1.5 Definitions

- we've seen some simple definitions of functions so far
- can also define other kinds of values:

```
here :: String
here = "Oxford"
```

- all so far have had an identifier (and perhaps formal parameters) on the left, and an expression on the right
- other forms possible: conditional, pattern-matching and local definitions

### 1.5 Conditional definitions

• earlier definition of *smaller* used a *conditional expression*:

```
smaller:: (Integer, Integer) \rightarrow Integer smaller (x, y) = if x \le y then x else y
```

• could also use *guarded equations*:

```
smaller:: (Integer, Integer) \rightarrow Integer

smaller (x, y)

| x \le y = x

| x > y = y
```

- each *clause* has a *guard* and an *expression* separated by =
- last guard can be *otherwise* (synonym for *True*)
- especially convenient with three or more clauses
- declaration style: guard; expression style: if ... then ... else...

### 1.5 Pattern matching

- define function by several equations
- arguments on lhs not just variables, but patterns
- patterns may be *variables* or *constants* (or *constructors*, later)
- eg

```
day::Integer → String
day 1 = "Saturday"
day 2 = "Sunday"
day _ = "Weekday"
```

- also wildcard pattern \_
- evaluate by reducing argument to normal form, then applying first matching equation
- result is  $\bot$  if argument has no normal form, or no equation matches

### 1.5 Local definitions

repeated subexpression can be captured in a local definition

```
qroots:: (Float, Float, Float) → (Float, Float)

qroots (a, b, c) = ((-b - sd) / (2 \times a), (-b + sd) / (2 \times a))

where sd = sqrt(b \times b - 4 \times a \times c)
```

- scope of 'where' clause extends over whole right-hand side
- multiple local definitions can be made:

```
demo:: Integer \rightarrow Integer \rightarrow Integer
demo x y = (a + 1) \times (b + 2)
where a = x - y
b = x + y
```

(nested scope, so layout rule applies here too: all definitions must start in same column)

 in conjunction with guarded equations, the scope of a where clause covers all guard clauses

# 1.5 let-expressions

- a where clause is syntactically attached to an equation
- also: definitions local to an expression

```
demo:: Integer \rightarrow Integer \rightarrow Integer
demo x y = \text{let } a = x - y
b = x + y
\text{in } (a + 1) \times (b + 2)
```

- declaration style: where; expression style: let ... in...
- let-expressions are more flexible than where clauses

#### 1.6 Functions as first-class citizens

- functional programming concerns functions (of course!)
- functions are first-class citizens of the language
- functions have all the rights of other types:
  - may be passed as arguments
  - may be returned as results
  - may be stored in data structures
  - etc
- functions that manipulate functions are *higher order*

**Slogan:** higher-order functions allow new and better means of modularizing programs

# 1.7 Functions as arguments and results

functions may be taken as arguments

```
applyToPair :: (Integer \rightarrow Integer) \rightarrow (Integer, Integer) \rightarrow (Integer, Integer)
applyToPair f(x, y) = (f x, f y)
```

functions may also be returned as results

```
addOrMul :: Bool \rightarrow (Integer \rightarrow Integer \rightarrow Integer)
 addOrMul \ b = \mathbf{if} \ b \ \mathbf{then} \ (+) \ \mathbf{else} \ (\times)
```

- those are rather artifical examples...
- partial application
- currying
- function composition (again)
- lots more, especially tomorrow: parametrizable program schemes

# 1.7 Partial application

- consider add' x y = x + y
- type Integer → Integer → Integer; takes two Integers and returns an Integer (eg add' 3 4 = 7)
- another view: type Integer → (Integer → Integer) (remember, → associates to the right); takes a single Integer and returns an Integer → Integer function (eg add' 3 is the Integer-transformer that adds three)
- need not apply function to all its arguments at once: *partial application*; result will then be a function, awaiting remaining arguments
- in fact, partial application is the norm; every function takes *exactly one argument*!
- sectioning ((3+)) is partial application of binary operators

# 1.7 Currying

- a function taking pair of arguments can be transformed into a function taking two successive arguments, and vice versa
- recall

```
add:: (Integer, Integer) \rightarrow Integer
add (x, y) = x + y
add':: Integer \rightarrow Integer
add' x y = x + y
```

- add' is called the curried version of add
- named after logician Haskell B. Curry (like the language), though actually due to Schönfinkel
- thus, pair-consuming functions are unnecessary

• transformations are implementable as higher-order operations

curry:: 
$$((a, b) \rightarrow c) \rightarrow (a \rightarrow b \rightarrow c)$$
  
curry  $f = \lambda a \ b \rightarrow f \ (a, b)$   
uncurry::  $(a \rightarrow b \rightarrow c) \rightarrow ((a, b) \rightarrow c)$   
uncurry  $g = \lambda(a, b) \rightarrow g \ a \ b$ 

- eg add' = curry add
- a related higher-order operation: flip arguments of binary function (later: *reverse* = *foldl* (*flip* (:)) [])

$$flip :: (a \to b \to c) \to (b \to a \to c)$$
$$flip f = \lambda b \ a \to f \ a \ b$$

# 1.7 Function composition

recall function composition

```
(⋄) :: (Integer → Integer) → (Integer → Integer) → Integer → Integer (f \circ g) x = f(g|x)
```

- takes two functions that 'meet in the middle' and an argument to one;
   returns the result from the other
- equivalently, type (Integer  $\rightarrow$  Integer)  $\rightarrow$  (Integer  $\rightarrow$  Integer)  $\rightarrow$  (Integer  $\rightarrow$  Integer)
- takes two functions, glues them together to form a third

# 1.7 Repeated composition

• double application: eg *twice square* 3 = 81

```
twice:: (Integer \rightarrow Integer) \rightarrow (Integer \rightarrow Integer) twice f = f \circ f
```

• generalize: eg iter 4 (2×)  $1 = 2 \times 2 \times 2 \times 2 \times 1$ 

```
iter:: Int \rightarrow (Integer \rightarrow Integer) \rightarrow (Integer \rightarrow Integer) iter 0 f = id iter n f = f \circ iter (n-1) f
```

# 1.8 Reasoning about programs

- functional programs are just equations
- lazy semantics means that rules of ordinary algebra (substitution of equals for equals) apply
- given

three 
$$x = 3$$

can replace 3 anywhere by *three* x for any suitably-typed expression x (even x = 1 'div' 0)

simple proofs by equational reasoning

### 1.9 Equational reasoning

- equations as definitions intended for evaluation
- ...but also useful for reasoning: proofs
- better than testing, because exhaustive
- eg given

$$swap(x, y) = (y, x)$$

we can show that *swap*ping twice is the identity:

```
swap (swap (a, b))
= { definition of swap }
swap (b, a)
= { definition of swap }
(a, b)
```

• program text used as proof rules



# 1.9 Another simple example

• given

```
curry f a b = f(a, b)
    fst(a, b) = a
    const \ a \ b = a
prove that const = curry fst:
        curry fst a b
           { definition of curry }
        fst (a, b)
           { definition of fst }
        а
           { definition of const }
        const a b
```