

Functional Programming

Lecture 3 — Defining functions

Pedro Vasconcelos
DCC/FCUP

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Defining functions

We can define new simple functions using equations and pre-defined functions.

```
lowercase :: Char → Bool  
lowercase c = c>='a' && c<='z'
```

```
factorial :: Integer → Integer  
factorial n = product [1..n]
```

Conditional expressions

A condition between two alternative can be written using 'if...then...else'.

```
absoluteValue :: Float → Float  
absoluteValue x = if x>=0 then x else -x
```

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absoluteValue x = if x>=0 then x else -x
```

Conditional expressions can be nested.

```
classify :: Int → String  
classify x = if x>0 then "positive" else  
             (if x==0 then "zero" else "negative")
```

Unlike imperative languages like C, Java or Python:

- ▶ 'if...then ... else' is an expression and not a statement
- ▶ the 'else' branch is mandatory

Guards

We can use equation guards instead of conditional expressions:

```
absoluteValue :: Float → Float
absoluteValue x | x>=0      = x
                | otherwise = -x
```

```
classify :: Int → String
classify x | x>0      = "positive"
           | x==0      = "zero"
           | otherwise = "negative"
```

Guards (cont.)

- ▶ Guards are tested in the top-to-bottom order
- ▶ The result is the first true alternative
- ▶ A function will be undefined if none of its guards is true (runtime exception)
- ▶ The name ‘otherwise’ is a synonym for True

Guards (cont.)

Local bindings scope over the conditions if the keyword where is aligned with the guards.

```
-- roots of a 2nd degree polynomial
roots :: Float → Float → Float → [Float]
roots a b c
| delta>0    = [ (-b+sqrt delta)/(2*a),
                  (-b-sqrt delta)/(2*a) ]
| delta==0   = [-b/(2*a) ]
| otherwise = []
where delta = b^2 - 4*a*c
```

Guards (cont.)

We can also define local bindings using ‘let...in...’. This way the scope of the definition does not extend to other alternatives.

```
roots :: Float → Float → Float → [Float]
roots a b c
| delta>0    = let r = sqrt delta
                in [ (-b+r) / (2*a) , (-b-r) / (2*a) ]
                   -- r scopes over the above expression
| delta==0   = [ -b / (2*a) ]
| otherwise  = []
where delta = b^2 - 4*a*c
```

Pattern matching

We can also define functions by several equations using patterns to distinguish alternatives.

```
not :: Bool → Bool
```

```
not True = False
```

```
not False = True
```

```
(&&) :: Bool → Bool → Bool
```

```
True && True = True
```

```
True && False = False
```

```
False && True = False
```

```
False && False = False
```

(Note: these functions are part of the Prelude)

Pattern matching (cont.)

A shorter definition for (`&&`):

```
(&&) :: Bool → Bool → Bool
False && _ = False
True  && x = x
```

- ▶ The pattern “`_`” matches any value
- ▶ The pattern variable `x` can be used in the right hand side
- ▶ The definition above ignores the second argument if the first is `False`

Pattern matching (cont.)

It is an error to repeat pattern variables:

```
x && x = x      -- ERROR  
_ && _ = False
```

We can instead use a guard to impose an equality constraint:

```
x && y | x==y = x  
_ && _           = False
```

Patterns on tuples

Example: the `fst` and `snd` functions project the first and second element of a pair.

```
fst :: (a,b) → a
```

```
fst (x,_) = x
```

```
snd :: (a,b) → b
```

```
snd (_,y) = y
```

These functions are also defined in the Prelude.

List constructors

All lists are constructed by adding elements one-by-one to the empty list using “`:`” (read *cons* for “constructor”).

`[1, 2, 3, 4]` = `1 : (2 : (3 : (4 : [])))`

Pattern over lists

We can use a pattern `x:xs` to decompose a list.

`head :: [a] → a`

`head (x:_)` = `x` -- *first element*

`tail :: [a] → [a]`

`tail (_:xs)` = `xs` -- *remaining elements*

Pattern over lists (cont.)

The parenthesis around the pattern are necessary because application has higher precedence than operators:

```
head x:_ = x      -- ERROR
```

```
head (x:_ ) = x   -- OK
```

The pattern `x:xs` matches only **non-empty lists**.

```
ghci> head []  
ERROR
```

Patterns over integers

Examples: testing if a an integer is “small” (0, 1 or 2).

```
small :: Int → Bool
small 0      = True
small 1      = True
small 2      = True
small _      = False
```

The final equation matches any remaining cases (“catch all”).

Case expressions

Instead of pattern matching with equations we can use
'case...of...':

Example:

```
null :: [a] → Bool
null xs = case xs of
    [] → True
    (_:_ ) → False
```

Case expressions (cont.)

Patterns in case expressions are tried in top-to-bottom order.
Hence, the following definition is equivalent to the one above:

```
null :: [a] → Bool
null xs = case xs of
    [] → True
    _   → False
```

Lambda expressions

We can define an *anonymous function* using a *lambda expression*.

Example:

$\backslash x \rightarrow 2*x+1$

is a function that maps a value x to $2x + 1$.

This notation is based on the λ -calculus, the mathematical formalism that is the theoretical basis for functional programming.

The backslash (\backslash) was chosen because it is similar to a lowercase lambda (λ).

Lambda expressions (cont.)

We can also use lambda-expression just as named function.

```
ghci> (\x -> 2*x+1) 1  
3
```

```
ghci> (\x -> 2*x+1) 3  
7
```

Why lambda expressions?

Lambda expressions allow us to define functions that return other functions.

In particular, they allow explaining the use of *currying* for handling multiple arguments.

Example:

$\text{add } x \ y = x+y$

is equivalent to

$\text{add} = \lambda x \rightarrow (\lambda y \rightarrow x+y)$

Why lambda expressions? (cont.)

Lambda expressions are also useful for avoid the need to give a name to short functions that we are going to use only once.

Example: usando the `map` function (that applies a function to every value in a list); instead of writing

```
squares_1_to_10 = map f [1..10]
where f x = x^2
```

we can write

```
squares_1_to_10 = map (\x → x^2) [1..10]
```

Operator sections

Recall that any binary operator can be used as binary function by wrapping it in parenthesis.

```
ghci> (+) 1 2  
3  
ghci> (++) "Abra" "cadabra!"  
"Abracadabra!"
```

Operator sections (cont.)

We can obtain a function from an operator by providing the left or right argument inside the parenthesis:

```
ghci> (+3) 2
```

```
5
```

```
ghci> (/2) 1
```

```
0.5
```

```
ghci> (++"!!!") "Bang"
```

```
"Bang!!!"
```

- ▶ Expression of the form $(x \otimes)$ and $(\otimes x)$ are called **sections**
- ▶ They are a shorter notation for the corresponding lambda expression

$$\begin{aligned}(x \otimes) &\equiv \lambda y \rightarrow x \otimes y \\ (\otimes x) &\equiv \lambda y \rightarrow y \otimes x\end{aligned}$$

Examples

(1+)	$\lambda x \rightarrow 1+x$
(2*)	$\lambda x \rightarrow 2*x$
(^2)	$\lambda x \rightarrow x^2$
(1/)	$\lambda x \rightarrow 1/x$
(++"!!")	$\lambda x \rightarrow x++"!!"$

Hence we can re-write the previous example

```
squares_1_to_10 = map (\x → x^2) [1..10]
```

in an even more succinct way:

```
squares_1_to_10 = map (^2) [1..10]
```