Introduction to Erlang functions and modules

Module 8 - Erlang tutorial 2

Function declaration
Module declaration
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Interrupting jobs
Function arity

Guards

Tail recursion

Case expressions

io:{format/1,format/2}

Recursive loops

List comprehensions

lists:{seq,map,zip,filter,foldl}

random:uniform/2

Operating systems and process oriented programming 2019

1DT096

Try yourself

In this tutorial you will continue to use the Erlang shell. You will also need to write and save code in a text editor, for example Emacs.

You are strongly recommended to type in the examples given in this introduction yourself to the Erlang shell and your text editor of choice.

You may use SSH to log in to the department Linux system to start the Erlang shell and Emacs.

If you prefer, you can install Erlang on your private computer and then start the Erlang shell and use whatever text editor you prefer.

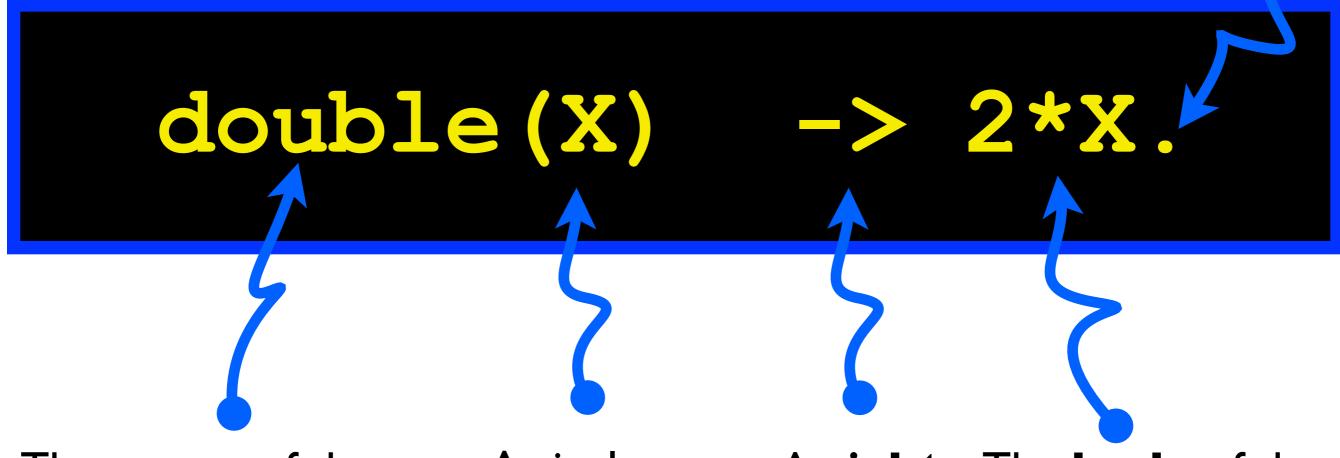
Function declaration

Function declaration

A functions takes zero or more arguments and returns a value.

An example of a function declaration.

The function declaration must end with a period.



The **name** of the function, must be an atom.

A single argument pattern X.

A right arrow.

The **body** of the function, i.e, what the function does.

Function declarations and the Erlang shell

Named functions can only be declared in **Erlang** modules.

```
1> double(X) -> 2*X.
* 1: syntax error before: '->'
```

When trying to declare a function in the Erlang shell we

get an error message:-(

Function evaluation

Function evaluation

We have already seen how to declare a function.

```
double(X) \rightarrow 2*X.
```

Calling a function is an expression. When evaluating a call to a function, for example double(7) the argument X is bound to the value 7 and the value of the expression 2*X is returned as the value of the expression double(7).

```
1> double(7).
14
2>
```

Modules

So far, we have used the Erlang shell.

Erlang code can be saved in files called modules.

Named functions must be declared in modules

Function arity

The arity of a function is an integer representing how many arguments can be passed to the function.

Erlang uses the notation Function/Arity where Function is the name of a function and Arity the arity of the function.

```
double(X) -> 2*X. %% double/1
sum(X,Y) -> X+Y. %% sum/2
sum(X,Y,Z) -> X+Y+Z. %% sum/3
```



Our first module

Lets create our first module in a file named test.erl.

```
%% The name of the module.
-module(test).
%% Only exported functions are
%% visible outside this module.
-export([double/1, sum/3]).
double(X) \rightarrow 2*X.
sum(X,Y) \longrightarrow X + Y.
%% Inside the module, all functions can
%% be used. We can for example use
%% sum/2 when declaring sum/3.
sum(X,Y,Z) \rightarrow sum(X,Y) + Z.
```

Our first module

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```
%% The name of the module.
                                             Note the
-module(test).
                                             ending
%% Only exported functions are
                                             periods.
%% visible outside this module.
-export([double/1, sum/3]).
double (X) \longrightarrow 2*X.
                                A list of exported
                                functions.
sum(X,Y) \longrightarrow X + Y.
%% Inside the module, all functions can
%% be used. We can for example use
%% sum/2 when declaring sum/3.
sum(X,Y,Z) \rightarrow sum(X,Y) + Z.
```

Our first module

Lets create our first module in a file named test.erl.

```
%% The name of the module.
-module(test).
%% Only exported functions are
%% visible outside this module.
-export([double/1, sum/3]).

double(X) -> 2*X.

sum(X,Y) -> X + Y.
```

Make sure to save the file before you continue.

```
%% Inside the module, all functions can
%% be used. We can for example use
%% sum/2 when declaring sum/3.
sum(X,Y,Z) -> sum(X,Y) + Z.
```

Compiling modules

To use functions declared in a module, you must first compile the module.

From the Erlang shell you compile a module by using the c function with the name of module as argument.

Make sure the module file is located in the same directory from where you started the Erlang shell.

```
6> c(test).
{ok,test}
```

Compiling the test module will return the tuple {ok, test} on success.

Using functions from modules

To call a function in a module, the following syntax is used.

Module:Function(Arg1, Arg2, ..., ArgN)

where Module is the name of the module, Function is the name of the function and Arg1 ... ArgN are the function arguments.

Testing our module

We can now test our module from the Erlang shell.

```
6> c(test).
{ok,test}
7> test:double(3).
6
8> test:sum(3,5).
** exception error: undefined
function test:sum/2
9 > \text{test:sum}(3,5,11).
19
```

Remember: only exported function can be called. The function test:sum/2 is not exported.

The lists module

```
33 > L = [3,9,2,5,0,3].
[3,9,2,5,0,3]
34> lists:sort(L).
[0,2,3,3,5,9]
35> lists:reverse(L).
[3,0,5,2,9,3]
36> L.
[3,9,2,5,0,3]
37> lists:max(L).
9
38> lists:min(L).
0
39> lists:sum(L).
22
```

Erlang comes with a large number of modules. One such module is the lists module which provides many useful functions for dealing with lists.

Remember: Erlang uses single assignment. Calling a function cannot alter the argument.

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Anonymous functions

Anonymous functions

It is possible to create a function without giving it a name using the following syntax.

```
F = fun (Arg1, Arg2, ... ArgN) -> end
```

This creates an anonymous function of N arguments and binds it to the variable F.

We can evaluate the fun F with the syntax.

```
F(Arg1, Arg2, ..., ArgN)
```

Anonymous functions and the shell

Anonymous functions can be defined and bound to variables from the shell using a **fun** expression. A **fun** expression begins with the keyword **fun** and ends with the keyword **end**.

```
3> Triple = fun(X) -> 3*X end.
#Fun<erl_eval.6.82930912>
4> Triple(5).
15
5> Scriple = fun(X,Y) -> 3*X - 2*Y end.
#Fun<erl_eval.6.82930912>
6> Scriple(5,3).
9
```

Function

clauses

Function clauses

A function can be declared using multiple clauses.

A function declaration is a sequence of function clauses separated by **semicolons** (;), and terminated by a **period** (.).

```
Name (Pattern11, ..., Pattern1N)
    Body
                           Clause # 1
Name (PatternK1, ..., PatterKN)
                           Clause # K
    BodyK
```

Multiple function clauses (first try)

Lets define a function to calculate the factorial of its argument.

Clauses are separated by semicolons.

The last clause must end with a period.

When calling a function, clauses are scanned sequentially until a clause is found that matches the provided argument.

```
fac(0) -> 1;
fac(N) -> N * fac(N-1). %% Clause 1
```

Lets manually evaluate fac(3).

```
fac(3) = 3*fac(3-1)
       = 3*fac(2)
       = 3*2*fac(2-1)
       = 3*2*fac(1)
       = 3*2*1*fac(1-1)
       = 3*2*1*fac(0)
       = 3*2*1*1
```

Our second module (my.erl)

Save the following in a file named my.erl.

```
-module (my).
-export([fac/1]).
fac(0) -> 1;
fac(N) \rightarrow N * fac(N-1).
```

The fac/1 function is a recursive function, a function calling itself.

Compile and test (my.erl)

```
1> c(my).

{ok,my}

2> my:fac(5).

120

3> my:fac(99).

93326215443944152681699238856266700490715968

26438162146859296389521759999322991560894146

39761565182862536979208272237582511852109168

6400000000000000000000000
```

Erlang uses arbitrary-sized integers for integer arithmetic. In Erlang, integer arithmetic is exact, so you don't have to worry about arithmetic overflows or not being able to represent an integer in a certain word size.

More testing ...

```
fac(0) -> 1;
fac(N) -> N * fac(N-1).
```

```
4 > my: fac(-1).
```

Calling my:fac(-1) will not terminate:-(

Interrupt job

```
4 > my: fac(-1).
```

Press Ctrl-g then, i then c to kill the non terminating job to get back to the Erlang shell prompt.

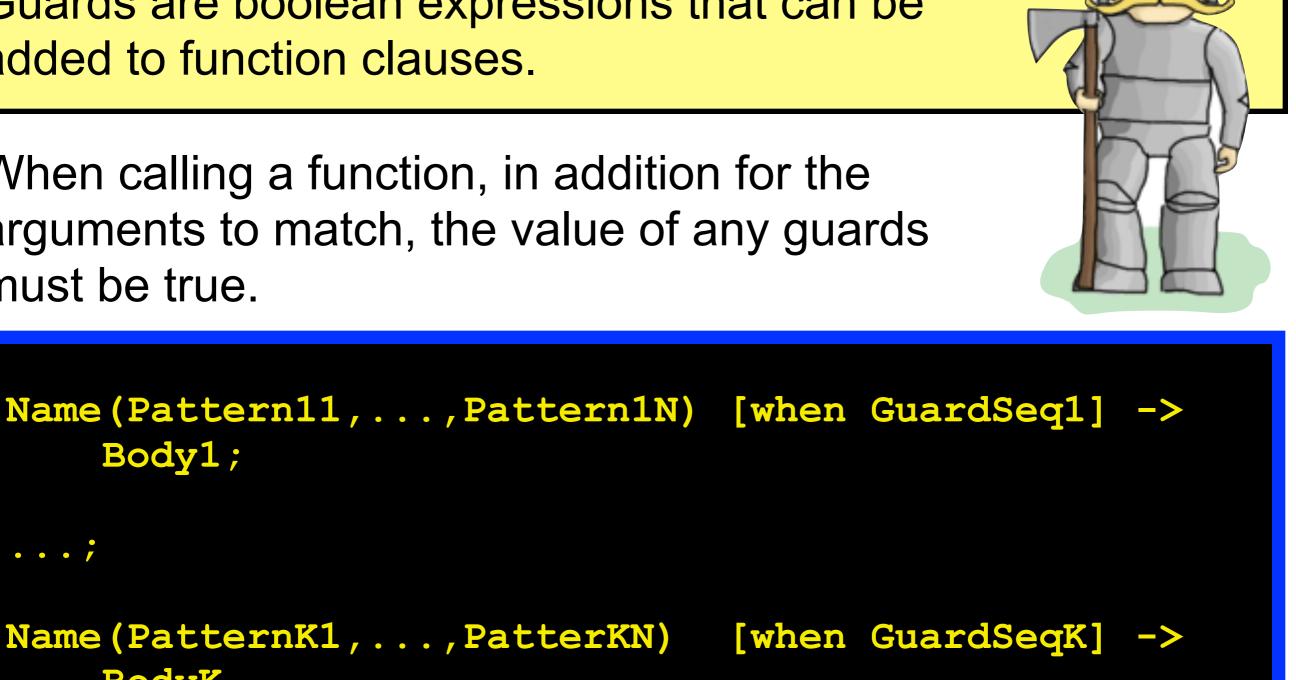
```
User switch command
  --> i
  --> c
** exception exit: killed
2>
```

Guards

Guards

Guards are boolean expressions that can be added to function clauses.

When calling a function, in addition for the arguments to match, the value of any guards must be true.



```
Name (PatternK1, ..., PatterKN)
                                [when GuardSeqK]
    BodyK.
```

Body1;

Add a guard to my:fac/1

```
-Module(my).
-export([fac/1]).
```

fac(0)

```
1;
fac(N) when N > 0 ->
N * fac(N-1).
```

A guarded function clause.

Compile and test (my.erl)

```
1 > c (my).
{ok, my}
2> my:fac(6).
720
3 > my:fac(5).
120
4 > my: fac(-1).
** exception error: no function clause
matching my:fac(-1) (my.erl, line 4)
```

After adding the guard, calling my:fac(-1) (or with any other negative number) will give an error.

recursion

Tail recursion

To write recursive functions efficiently in Erlang they must be tail recursive.

A function is tail recursive (roughly speaking) if for any recursive call the answer returned by the recursive call is the whole answer.

Can we write a tail recursive implementation of the factorial function?



Tail recursive factorial

To use tail recursion we introduce a second helper function fact/2.

```
fact(N) -> fact(N,1).

fact(0,A) -> A;
fact(N,A) -> fact(N-1,N*A).
```

```
fact(N) -> fact(N,1).

fact(0,A) -> A;
fact(N,A) -> fact(N-1,N*A).
```

Lets manually evaluate fact (3).

my:fact/2

Add the tail recursive solution to the module my.erl. Also add a base case for my:fact(0) and a guard to my:fact/1.

```
-module (my).
-export([fac/1, fact/1]).
%% Non tail recursive.
fac(0) -> 1;
fac(N) when N > 0 \rightarrow N * fac(N-1).
%% Tail recursive.
fact(0) -> 1;
fact(N) when N > 0 \rightarrow fact(N,1).
fact(0,A) -> A;
fact(N,A) \rightarrow fact(N-1,N*A).
```

Compile and test (my.erl)

```
3> c(my).
{ok,my}
4> my:fact(0).
1
5> my:fact(5).
120
6>
```

Function clause bodies

Function clause bodies

A function clause body consists of a sequence of expressions separated by commas. The last expression must end with a period. When calling a function, the value of the last expression will be returned by the function.

```
pyth(A,B) ->
A2 = A*A,
B2 = B*B,
C2 = A2 + B2,
function from the math
math:sqrt(C2). module.
```

Case

expressions

The Case expression

Using a case expression, decisions based on guarded patterns can be made.

```
case Expr of
    Pattern1 [when GuardSeq1]
         Body1;
    PatternN [when GuardSeqN] ->
         BodyN
                       NOTE: neither a semicolon
end
                       nor a period after the last
                       case bodyN.
```

A first try using Case

Add the following two function declarations to the module my.erl and don't forget to export them from the module.

```
guess1(42) ->
     correct;
guess1(_) ->
     wrong.
```

```
guess1(42) ->
    correct;
guess1(_) ->
    wrong.
```

```
1> c(my).
{ok,my}
2> my:guess1(13).
wrong
3> my:guess1(42).
correct
4> my:guess2(42).
correct
5> my:guess2(77).
wrong
```

The two functions guess1/1 and guess2/1 are equivalent.

What do you think the following function does?

```
what (X)
    case X of
         \{A, B\} when A+B > 100 ->
             {huge tuple, A, B};
         {A, B} ->
             {tuple, A, B};
         [H|T] ->
             {list, H, T};
        X ->
             {unknown, X}
    end.
```

Add the above what/1 function to my.erl, don't forget to add what/1 to the list of exported functions.

Try it out.

```
6 > c(my).
{ok, my}
7> my:what(99).
{unknown, 99}
8> my:what({a,b}).
{tuple,a,b}
9> my:what({99, bar}).
{tuple,99,bar}
10 > my: what({99, 2}).
{huge tuple,99,2}
11> 9> my:what({a,b, c}).
{unknown, {a,b,c}}
12> my:what([1,2,3]).
{list,1,[2,3]}
13> my:what("abc").
{list, 97, "bc"}
```

```
what(X) ->
  case X of
  {A, B} when A+B > 100 ->
        {huge_tuple, A, B};
  {A, B} ->
        {tuple, A, B};
  [H|T] ->
        {list, H, T};
  X ->
        {unknown, X}
  end.
```

ioiformat

io:format/1

This function prints a string to the terminal.

```
1> io:format("Hello world!").
Hello world!ok
```

The string "Hello world!" was printed.

All expressions must have a value and the value of io: format is ok which also got printed on the same line.

To include a new line we use ~n.

```
1> io:format("Hello world!").
Hello world!ok
2> io:format("Hello world!~n").
Hello world!
ok
```

In the second example, the string "Hello world!" was printed, then a new line and finally the result ok.

io:format/2



This version of **format** takes a second argument which must be a list. Elements of this list will be included in the printed string using ~s for strings and ~w for numbers.

```
3 > X = "Dolly".
"Dolly"
                    Replace \sims with the value of the string X.
4> io:format("Hello ~s!", [X]).
Hello Dolly!ok
5 > Y = 42.
                                                      A list!
42
                    Replace ~w with the value of the number Y.
6> io:format("Hello ~w!", [Y]
Hello 42!ok
                    Replace \sims with the value of X and \simw with the value of Y.
6> io:format("Hello ~s ~w!", [X, Y]).
Hello Dolly 42!ok
```

Pattern

matching

twice

Pattern matching twice in a function clause head

```
-module(test).

-compile(export_all).

list_info([]) ->
    io:format("Empty list [].~n");

list_info([H|T] = L) ->
    io:format("List ~w with head ~w and tail ~w.~n",[L,H,T]).
```

```
1> c(test).
{ok,test}
2> test:list_info([]).
Empty list [].
ok
3> test:list_info([1,2,3,4,5]).
List [1,2,3,4,5] with head 1 and tail [2,3,4,5].
ok
```

Recursion instead of

Recursion instead of loops

In C-like languages such as C, C++ and Java we often use for-loops to iterate.

```
for (i=0; i <= 10; i++) {
   do_something();
}</pre>
```

In Erlang we use functions and recursive function calls.

The function repeat/1 calls itself and counts down from N to 0.

my:repeat/1

Add the function repeat/1 to the module my. For each recursive call io:format/2 prints the value of the argument N.

```
-module (my).
-export([fac/1, fact/1, repeat/1]).
%% Non tail recursive.
fac(0) -> 1;
fac(N) when N > 0 -> N * fac(N-1).
%% Tail recursive.
fact(0) -> 1;
fact(N) when N > 0 \rightarrow fact(N,1).
fact(0,A) -> A;
fact(N,A) \rightarrow fact(N-1,N*A).
repeat(0) -> ok;
repeat(N) ->
     io:format("N = \sim w \sim n", [N]),
     repeat (N-1).
```

Compile and test (my:repeat/1)

```
7 > c(my).
{ok, my}
8> my:repeat(5).
\overline{N} = 5
N = 4
N = 3
\overline{N} = 2
N = 1
ok
```

```
repeat(0) -> ok;
repeat(N) ->
   io:format("N = ~w~n", [N]),
   repeat(N-1).
```

Generating sequential lists

lists:seq/2

lists:seq/2

Generating sequential lists.

```
1 > L = lists:seq(1,10).
[1,2,3,4,5,6,7,8,9,10]
2> lists:seq($a, $z).
"abcdefghijklmnopqrstuvwxyz"
3 > lists:seq(1,10,2).
[1,3,5,7,9]
4 > lists:seq(1,10,3).
[1,4,7,10]
5> lists:seq(10,1,-1).
[10,9,8,7,6,5,4,3,2,1]
```

List comprehensions

List comprehensions

1

A list comprehension is a mathematical way to construct a list.

```
Generate where X comes from this list.
elements of this form

2> [2*X || X <- lists:seq(1,10)].
[2,4,6,8,10,12,14,16,18,20]
```

List comprehensions

One or more conditions can be added to a list comprehension to filter out elements from the source list.

A boolean expression

```
2> [2*X || X <- lists:seq(1,10), X rem 2 == 0].
[4,8,12,16,20]
```

A comma

List comprehensions as loops

```
1> L = lists:seq(1,10).
[1,2,3,4,5,6,7,8,9,10]
2> P = fun(X) -> io:format("~w ", [X]) end.
#Fun<erl_eval.6.82930912>
3> [P(X) || X <- L].
1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8 9 10
[ok,ok,ok,ok,ok,ok,ok,ok,ok,ok]</pre>
```

Transforming lists

lists:map/2

lists:map/2

Using lists:map/2 a list can easily be transformed into a new list by applying a function to every element in the list.

To double every element in a list we can map an anonymous function doing the doubling over the list.

```
1> L = lists:seq(1,10).
[1,2,3,4,5,6,7,8,9,10]
2> lists:map(fun(X) -> 2*X end, L).
[2,4,6,8,10,12,14,16,18,20]
```

Note: the following list comprehension gives the same result.

```
3> [2*X || X <- L].
[2,4,6,8,10,12,14,16,18,20]
```

lists:map/2

We don't need to use anonymous functions.

We can map a function from a module over a list.

```
1> L = lists:seg(1,10). Note: must add the keyword fun.
[1,2,3,4,5,6,7,3,9,10]

2> lists:map(fun my:fact/1, L).
[1,2,6,24,120,720,5040,40320,362880,3628800]
```

Note: the following list comprehension gives the same result.

```
3> [my:fact(X) || X <- L].
[1,2,6,24,120,720,5040,40320,362880,
3628800]</pre>
```

Combining lists

lists:zip/2

lists:zip/2

"Zips" two lists of equal length into one list of two-tuples, where the first element of each tuple is taken from the first list and the second element is taken from corresponding element in the second list.

```
4> lists:zip([1,2,3], [a,b,c])
[{1,a},{2,b},{3,c}]
```

Filtering lists

lists:filter/2

lists:filter/2

Checks every element in a list using a function **P** returning a bool (a predicate function). Creates a new list with all elements for which **P** returns **true**.

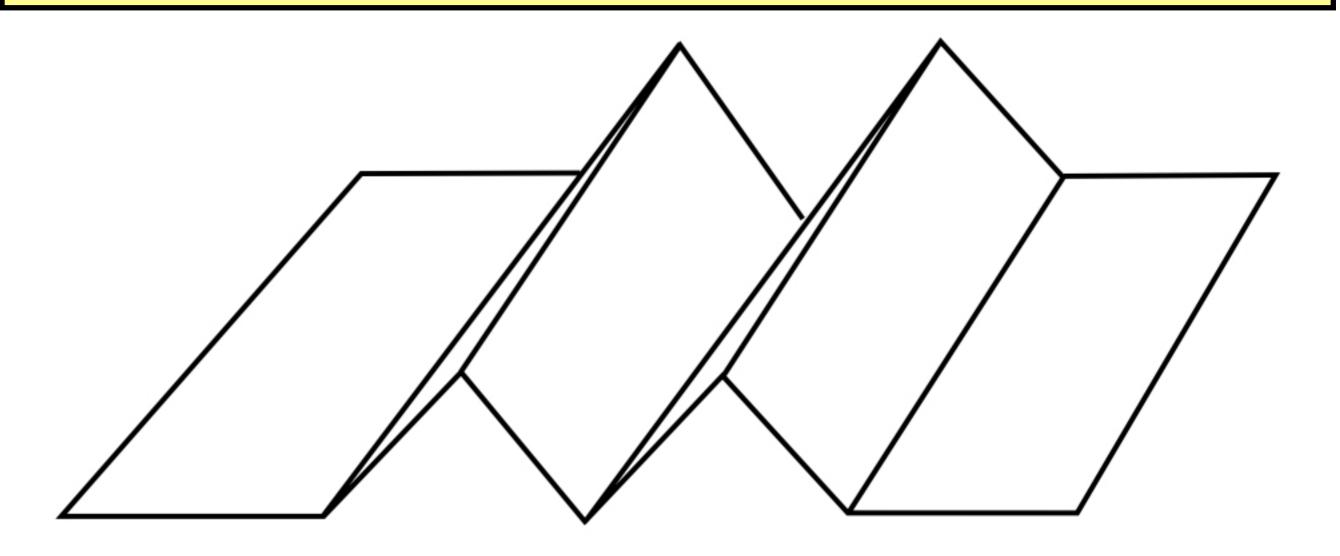
```
1 > L = lists:seq(1,10).
[1,2,3,4,5,6,7,8,9,10]
2 > P = fun(X) -> X rem 2 == 0 end.
#Fun<erl eval.6.82930912>
3> lists:filter(P, L).
[2,4,6,8,10]
3 > [X | X < - L, X rem 2 == 0].
[2,4,6,8,10]
```

Combining all elements in a list to single value

lists:fold1/3

Fold

A fold is a higher-order function that analyze a recursive data structure and combines the elements of the data structure to construct a new data structure or value.



lists:fold1/3

definition

Look at every element of a list one after the other and reduce them to a single value.

fold1(Fun, Acc0, List) -> Acc1

| Parameter | Туре | Description |
|-----------|---|---------------------------|
| Fun | <pre>fun((Elem :: T, AccIn) -> AccOut)</pre> | Combining function |
| Acc0 | Acc1 = AccIn = AccOut = term() | Initial accumulator value |
| List | [T] | Input list |
| Т | term() | Element of the input list |

lists:fold1/3

examples

Use a fold to sum all elements of a list.

Use a fold to multiply all elements of a list.

```
2> lists:foldl(
    fun(X, Prod) -> X * Prod end,
        1,
        [1,2,3,4,5]).
```

Functional problem SOIVING

Functional problem solving

Given a problem, try to decompose the original problem into smaller problems which are easier to solve or even already have a solution.

Problem: shuffle the elements of a list randomly.

```
1 > L = lists:seq(1,10).
[1,2,3,4,5,6,7,8,9,10]
2 > L1 = [\{random:uniform(100), X\} | | X < - L].
[{45,1},{73,2},{95,3},{51,4},{32,5},{60,6},
{92,7},{67,8},{48,9},{60,10}]
3 > L2 = lists:sort(L1).
[{32,5},{45,1},{48,9},{51,4},{60,6},{60,10},
{67,8},{73,2},{92,7},{95,3}]
4 > L3 = lists:map(fun({ ,X}) -> X end, L2).
[5,1,9,4,6,10,8,2,7,3]
```

my:shuffle/1

Add the following function to the module my.

```
shuffle(L) ->
L1 = [{random:uniform(100),X} || X <- L],
L2 = lists:sort(L1),
lists:map(fun({_,X}) -> X end, L2).
```

```
20 > c(my).
\{ok, my\}
21 > L = lists:seq(1,10).
[1,2,3,4,5,6,7,8,9,10]
22> my:shuffle(L).
[4,9,10,5,2,6,8,7,1,3]
23> my:shuffle(L).
[2,8,6,7,1,9,5,4,3,10]
24> my:shuffle(L).
[10,9,1,5,6,8,7,4,3,2]
```