

# Functional Programming (1/2)

Martin Kellogg

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  - **imperative:** change state, assignments
  - **structured:** if/block/routine control flow
  - **object-oriented:** message passing (=dyn. dispatch), inheritance
  - **functional:** functions are **first-class citizens** that can be passed around or called recursively. We can avoid changing state by passing copies.

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  - array that is destructively updated = registers/memory/disk

# Imperative programming: example

Consider the following C program:

```
double avg(int x, int y) {  
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semicolons separate  
commands, program is a list of  
commands





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destructive updates of  
memory cells

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  - lambda calculus is **as powerful** as Turing machines
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- functional programming **models math** well
  - it is easier to formally reason about functional programs

# Functional programming: characteristics

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- Important Features of functional languages:
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  - **Lists** and list processing

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Let's look at how imperative and functional languages **manage state** in a bit more detail

# State management: functional vs imperative

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- **Functional** programs yield **new similar states** over time.
  - `let x = y in ...`, however, only changes  $x$ 's value **within** the scope of the ...

# Basic functional programming

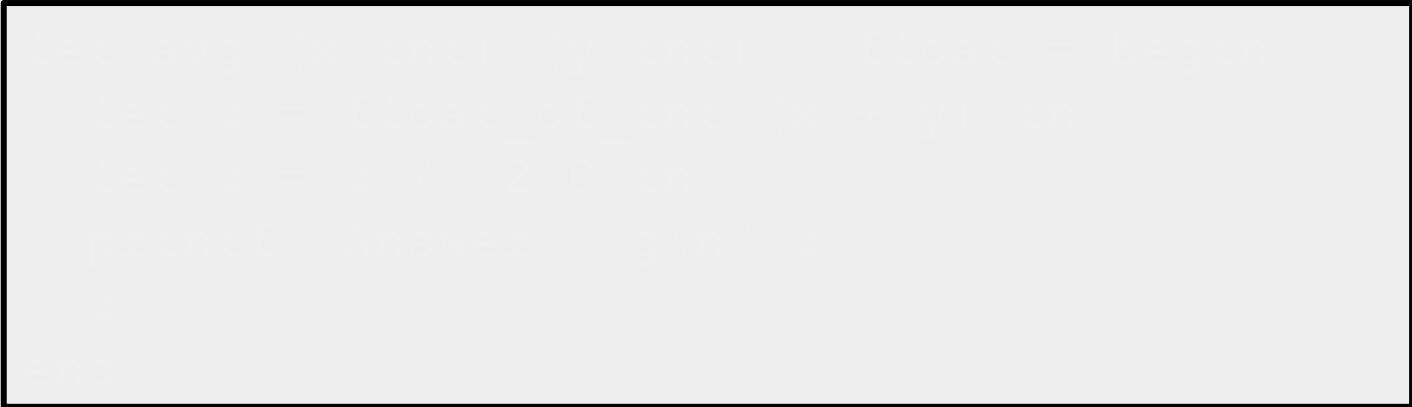
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NOT the same as a semi-colon:  
commands vs expressions



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**Definition:** A *command* is a syntactic entity in a programming language which causes some computation (or *side-effect*) to occur, but which does not itself evaluate to a value

- e.g., a call to `printf` prints something to the terminal, but doesn't actually evaluate to anything

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**Definition:** An **expression** is a syntactic entity in a programming language that may be evaluated to a value

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We'll come back to this later in the course, when we discuss **operational semantics**

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even the operators are  
type-safe (in OCaml)



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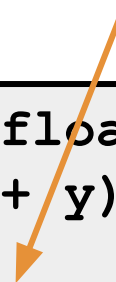
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commands still exist, but  
limited to inherently  
“imperative” operations (I/O,  
saving to disk, etc.)



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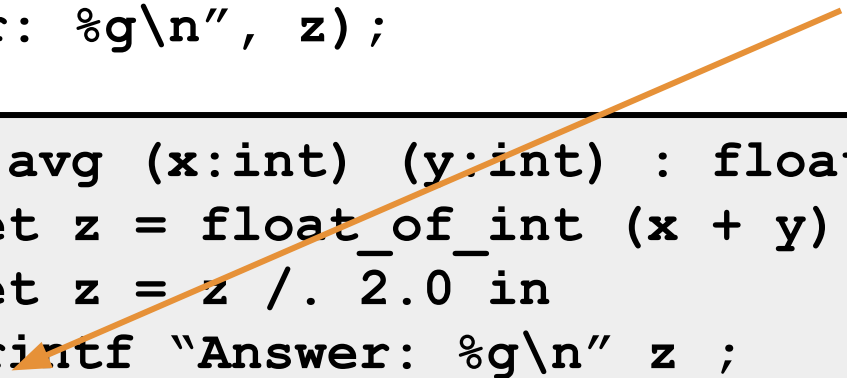


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no "return" statement,  
because everything is an  
expression



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**tuple creation**



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**tuple field extraction**



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**point example:**

```
let add_points p1 p2 =
  let x1, y1 = p1 in
  let x2, y2 = p2 in
  (x1 + x2, y1 + y2)
```

# Lists are Your Friends

[Concept](#)

[OCaml Syntax](#)



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x :: [y ; z]

= [x;y;z]

## Aside: “cons”, “car”, and “cdr”

- **cons** is a fundamental operation from Lisp, the first practical functional programming language (invented in the 1950s)
  - and 2nd higher-order language that's still in use, after Fortran

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  - e.g., **cons** 2 3 in Lisp would create the pair (2, 3)
  - it's used as shorthand for similar operations in modern FP
- you might also here “**car**” and “**cdr**” to refer to the first (resp. second) elements of a cons-pair (also historical Lisp terminology)

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## Concept

- Empty list
- Singleton
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[ element ]

[ e1 ; e2 ; e3 ]

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• Longer list	<code>[ e1 ; e2 ; e3 ]</code>	
• Cons	<code>x :: [y;z]</code>	<code>= [x;y;z]</code>
• Append	<code>[w;x] @ [y;z]</code>	<code>= [w;x;y;z]</code>

All lists must be *homogenous* (i.e., all elements must *have same type*)

# Functional examples

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- Simple function set (built out of lists):

```
let rec add_elem (s, e) =  
  if s = [] then [e]  
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- Same function using pattern matching instead:

```
let rec add_elem (s, e) = match s with  
| [] -> [e]  
| hd :: tl when e = hd -> s  
| hd :: tl -> hd :: add_elem(tl, e)
```

# Equivalent Imperative (C) Code

```
List* add_elem(List *s, item e) {  
    if (s == NULL) {  
        return list(e, NULL);  
    } else if (s->hd == e) {  
        return s;  
    } else if (s->tl == NULL) {  
        s->tl = list(e, NULL);  
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```

More cases  
to handle!

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  - More readable (if you like math)
- *Referential transparency*
  - Replace any expression by its value without changing the result
- “No” side-effects
  - Fewer errors

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Language	Speed	Space
C (gcc)	1.0	1.1
C++ (g++)	1.0	1.6
OCaml	1.5	2.9
Java (JDK -server)	1.7	9.1
Lisp	1.7	11
C# (mono)	2.4	5.6
Python	6.5	3.9
Ruby	16	5.0

*17 small benchmarks*



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- Not appropriate for every program
  - Some programs are inherently stateful (e.g., operating systems)

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# Trivia Break: Computer Science History

This American computer scientist and mathematician was born in Washington, DC, in 1903. While a professor at Princeton, he advised Alan Turing's doctoral dissertation. He is known for inventing the lambda calculus, though he made many other contributions to mathematics, computer science, and philosophy.

# Trivia Break: Cuisine

This dish is a sauce or gravy seasoned with spices, mainly derived from the interchange of Indian cuisine with European cuisine following the Columbian Exchange. Many types of this dish exist in different international cuisines. For example, in Southeast Asia, it often contains a spice paste and coconut milk. In India, the spices are fried in oil or ghee to create a paste. In Britain, this dish is regarded as national dish; some types were adopted from India, but others—such as Chicken Tikka Masala—were wholly invented in Britain in the 20th century.

# ML's innovative features

- Type system
  - Strongly typed
  - Type inference
  - Abstraction
- Modules
- Patterns
- Polymorphism
- Higher-order functions
- Concise formal semantics

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*There are many ways of trying to understand programs. People often rely too much on one way, which is called “debugging” and consists of running a partly-understood program to see if it does what you expected. Another way, which ML advocates, is to install some means of understanding in the very programs themselves.*

**- Robin Milner, 1997**

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- Types help us find bugs early
  - Requiring types to match up can rule out bad programs without even having to test them!

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- An IBM report gives an average defect repair cost of (2008\$):
  - \$25 during coding
  - \$100 at build time
  - \$450 during testing/QA
  - \$16,000 post-release

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let rec add_elem (s, e) = match s with  
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You might be tempted to ask “How does ML infer types?” Unfortunately, this is a complex topic. Ask in OH if you’re curious, or take a PhD-level seminar from me or Iulian Neamtii.

# Pattern Matching

- Simplifies code (eliminates ifs, accessors)

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type btree = (* binary tree of strings *)  
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type btree = (* binary tree of strings *)  
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let rec height tree = match tree with  
  | Leaf _ -> 1  
  | Node(x,_,y) -> 1 + max (height x) (height y)
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let rec mem tree elt = match tree with
  | Leaf str -> str = elt
  | Node(x,str,y) -> str = elt || mem x elt || mem y elt
```



# Pattern Matching Mistakes

- What if I forget a case? E.g.,

```
let rec is_odd x = match x with  
  | 0 -> false  
  | 2 -> false  
  | x when x > 2 -> is_odd (x-2)
```

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Warning: this pattern-matching is not exhaustive.

Here is an example of a value that is not matched: 1

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length ["algol"; "smalltalk"; "ml"] = 3
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File "list-example.ml", line 1, characters 25-26:

```
1 | let myList = [ "algol" ; 1 ] in
```

^

**Error:** This expression has type int but an expression was expected of type string

*length [1 ; "algol" ] = ?*

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**f is itself a  
function!**

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Extremely powerful  
programming technique:

- general iterators
- implement abstraction

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- We can also imagine:

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- **filter** `(fun x -> x > 4) [1; 5; 8]` `= [5; 8]`



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○ <b>mem</b>	5 [1; 5; 8]	= true

# The Story of Fold

How can we **build**  
all of these?

- We've seen **length** and **map**
- We can also imagine:

- **sum**  $[1; 5; 8]$  = 14
- **product**  $[1; 5; 8]$  = 40
- **and**  $[true; true; false]$  = false
- **or**  $[true; true; false]$  = true
- **filter**  $(\text{fun } x \rightarrow x > 4) [1; 5; 8]$  =  $[5; 8]$
- **reverse**  $[1; 5; 8]$  =  $[8; 5; 1]$
- **mem**  $5 [1; 5; 8]$  = true

# The Story of Fold

- The *fold* operator comes from recursion theory (Kleene, 1952):

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let rec fold f acc lst = match lst with  
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Note: acc type and return type are the same!

```
val fold : (a -> β -> a) -> a -> β list -> a  
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- on the whiteboard, this example (f is +): 

# Let's build things out of fold

- **length** lst = fold (fun acc elt -> ??? ) ? lst

# Let's build things out of fold

- `length lst = fold (fun acc elt -> acc + 1 ) 0 lst`

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- **length** lst = fold (fun acc elt -> acc + 1 ) 0 lst
- **sum** lst = fold (fun acc elt -> acc + elt ) 0 lst
- **product** lst = fold (fun acc elt -> acc \* elt ) 1 lst

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- **and** lst = fold (fun acc elt -> acc & elt ) true lst

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- think you can do **or** on your own?

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- **and** lst = fold (fun acc elt -> acc & elt ) true lst
- think you can do **or** on your own?
  - what about **reverse**?

## Let's build things out of fold, part 2

- **reverse** lst = fold (fun acc elt -> ??? ) ? lst

## Let's build things out of fold, part 2

- `reverse` `lst` = `fold` (fun acc elt -> `acc @ [ e ]` ) [] `lst`

# Let's build things out of fold, part 2

- **reverse** lst = fold (fun acc elt -> acc@[e] ) [] lst
  - note types: (acc : **a list**) (e : **a**)

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- **reverse** lst = fold (fun acc elt -> acc @ [ e ] ) [] lst
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- **filter** keep\_it lst = fold (fun acc elt -> ??? ) ? lst

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- **filter** wanted lst = fold (fun acc elt -> acc || wanted = elt ) false lst

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- **filter** keep\_it lst = fold (fun acc elt -> if keep\_it elt  
then elt :: acc  
else acc ) [] lst
- **filter** wanted lst = fold (fun acc elt -> acc || wanted = elt ) false lst
  - note types: (acc : **bool**) (e : **a**)

# Let's build things out of fold, part 2

- **reverse** lst = fold (fun acc elt -> acc @ [ e ] ) [] lst
  - note types: (acc : **a list**) (e : **a**)
- **filter** keep\_it lst = fold (fun acc elt -> if keep\_it elt  
then elt :: acc  
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- **filter** wanted lst = fold (fun acc elt -> acc || wanted = elt ) false lst
  - note types: (acc : **bool**) (e : **a**)
- Could we do **map**?
  - Recall: map (fun x -> x + 10) [1;2] = [11;12]

# Let's build things out of fold, part 2

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- Could we do **map**?
  - Recall: map (fun x -> x + 10) [1;2] = [11;12]
  - Let's do it together...

# Let's build things out of fold, part 3 (map)

let **map** myfun lst =

fold (fun acc elt -> ??? ) ? lst

# Let's build things out of fold, part 3 (map)

```
let map myfun lst =  
  fold (fun acc elt -> (myfun elt) :: acc) [] lst
```

# Let's build things out of fold, part 3 (map)

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let map myfun lst =  
    fold (fun acc elt -> (myfun elt) :: acc) [] lst
```

- Types of:
  - $\text{myfun} : \alpha \rightarrow \beta$
  - $\text{lst} : \alpha \text{ list}$
  - $\text{acc} : \beta \text{ list}$
  - $\text{elt} : \alpha$



# Let's build things out of fold, part 3 (map)

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let map myfun lst =  
    fold (fun acc elt -> (myfun elt) :: acc) [] lst
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- Types of:
  - $\text{myfun} : \alpha \rightarrow \beta$
  - $\text{lst} : \alpha \text{ list}$
  - $\text{acc} : \beta \text{ list}$
  - $\text{elt} : \alpha$
- Could we do **sort**?

# Sorting examples

let **langs** = [“fortran”; “algol”; “c” ] in

- sort (fun a b -> ??? ) langs

= [“algol”; “c”; “fortran” ]

# Sorting examples

let langs = ["fortran"; "algol"; "c"] in

- sort (fun a b -> a < b) langs

= ["algol"; "c"; "fortran"]

# Sorting examples

let **langs** = [“fortran”; “algol”; “c” ] in

- sort (fun a b -> **a < b**) langs
- sort (fun a b -> **???**) langs

= [“algol”; “c”; “fortran” ]

= [**“fortran”; “c”; “algol”** ]

# Sorting examples

let **langs** = [“fortran”; “algol”; “c” ] in

- sort (fun a b -> **a < b**) langs
- sort (fun a b -> **a > b**) langs

= [“algol”; “c”; “fortran” ]

= [“fortran”; “c”; “algol” ]

# Sorting examples

let **langs** = [“fortran”; “algol”; “c” ] in

- sort (fun a b -> **a < b** ) langs
- sort (fun a b -> **a > b** ) langs
- sort (fun a b -> **???** ) langs

= [“algol”; “c”; “fortran” ]

= [“fortran”; “c”; “algol” ]

= [“c”; “algol”; “fortran” ]

# Sorting examples

let **langs** = [“fortran”; “algol”; “c” ] in

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- sort (fun a b -> **strlen a < strlen b**) langs = [“c”; “algol”; “fortran” ]

# Sorting examples

let **langs** = [“fortran”; “algol”; “c” ] in

- sort (fun a b -> **a < b**) langs = [“algol”; “c”; “fortran” ]
- sort (fun a b -> **a > b**) langs = [“fortran”; “c”; “algol” ]
- sort (fun a b -> **strlen a < strlen b**) langs = [“c”; “algol”; “fortran” ]
- Recall Java’s **Comparator** interface
  - in this functional style, our implementations are much simpler!



# Partial Application and Currying

```
let myadd x y = x + y  
val myadd : int -> int -> int  
myadd 3 5 = 8
```

# Partial Application and Currying

```
let myadd x y = x + y  
val myadd : int -> int -> int  
myadd 3 5 = 8  
let addtwo = myadd 2
```

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let addtwo = myadd 2
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- How do we know what this means? We use *referential transparency*!  
Basically, just substitute it in.

# Partial Application and Currying

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Basically, just substitute it in.

```
val addtwo : int -> int
addtwo 77 = 79
```

# Partial Application and Currying

```
let myadd x y = x + y
val myadd : int -> int -> int
myadd 3 5 = 8
let addtwo = myadd 2
```

- How do we know what this means? We use *referential transparency*!  
Basically, just substitute it in.

```
val addtwo : int -> int
addtwo 77 = 79
```

- called *Currying*: “if you fix some arguments, you get a function of the remaining arguments”

# Course Announcements

- Don't forget: PA1c1 **due today**
  - and PA1c2 (1 more language!) **due Thursday**
  - and PA1 (full, all four languages!) **due next Monday**
- Cool Reference Manual is assigned reading for Wednesday, too ;)
  - I ***certainly*** wouldn't consider giving another quiz...

# Course Announcements