

Concurrency: Languages, Programming and Theory

– Functional Programming and Lambda Calculus –

Session 1 – Oct 22, 2003

Martin Odersky

EPFL-LAMP

Part I: Functional Programming

- A pure functional program consists of data, functions, and an expression which describes a result.
- Missing: variables, assignment, side-effects.
- A processor of a functional program is essentially a calculator.

Example: (transcript of a session with *scalac*, the Scala interpreter)

```
/home/odersky/tmp> scalac
```

```
> def gcd (a: int, b: int): int = if (b == 0) a else gcd (b, a % b)
```

```
'def gcd'
```

```
> gcd (8, 10)
```

```
2
```

```
> val x = gcd (15, 70)
```

```
val x: int = 5
```

```
> val y = gcd(x, x)
```

```
val y: int = 5
```

Why Study Functional Programming?

- FP is programming in its simplest form \Rightarrow easier to understand thoroughly than more complex variants.
- FP has powerful composition constructs.
- In FP, only the *value* of an expression matters since side effects are impossible. (this property is called *referential transparency*).
- Referential transparency gives a rich set of laws to transform programs.
- FP has a well-established theoretical basis in Lambda Calculus and Denotational Semantics.

Square Roots by Newton's Method

Compute the square root of a given number x as a limit of the sequence y_i given by:

$$y_0 = 1$$

$$y_{i+1} = (y_i + x/y_i)/2$$

The $i \rightarrow i + 1$ step is encoded in the function *improve*:

```
> def improve (guess: double, x: double) = (guess + x / guess) / 2
```

```
def improve : (guess : double, x : double) double
```

```
> val y0 = 1.0
```

```
val y0 : double = 1.0
```

```
> val y1 = improve (y0, 2.0)
```

```
val y1 : double = 1.5
```

```
> val y2 = improve (y1, 2.0)
```

```
val y2 : double = 1.4166666666666665
```

```
> val y3 = improve (y2, 2.0)
```

```
val y3 : double = 1.4142156862745097
```

We have to stop the iteration when the result is good enough:

```
> def abs(x: double): double = if (x ≥ 0) x else -x
```

```
def abs : (x : double) double
```

```
> def goodEnough (guess: double, x: double): boolean =
```

```
| abs((guess * guess) - x) < 0.001
```

```
def goodEnough : (guess : double, x : double) boolean
```

```
> def sqrtIter(guess: double, x: double): double =
```

```
| if (goodEnough(guess, x)) guess else sqrtIter (improve(guess, x), x)
```

```
def sqrtIter : (guess : double, x : double) double
```

```
> def sqrt(x: double): double = sqrtIter(1.0, x)
```

```
def sqrt : (x : double) double
```

```
> sqrt (2.0)
```

```
1.4142156862745097
```

Language Elements Seen So Far

- Function Definitions:

def Ident Parameters [':' ResultType] "=" Expression

- Value definitions:

val Ident "=" Expression

- Function application: *Ident*'(' *Expr*₁, ..., *Expr*₂ ')'
- Numbers, operators: as in Java
- If-then-else: as in Java, but as an expression.
- Types: as in Java.

Nested Functions

If functions are used only internally by some other function we can avoid “name-space pollution” by nesting. E.g:

```
def sqrt (x : double) = {  
  def improve (guess: double, x: double) = (guess + x / guess) / 2;  
  def goodEnough (guess: double, x: double) =  
    abs ((guess * guess) - x) < 0.001;  
  def sqrtIter (guess: double, x: double): double =  
    if (goodEnough (guess, x)) guess  
    else sqrtIter (improve (guess, x), x);  
  sqrtIter (1.0, x)  
}
```

The visibility of an identifier extends from its own definition to the end of the enclosing block, including any nested definitions.

Exercise:

- The *goodEnough* function tests the absolute difference between the input parameter and the square of the guess.
- This is not very accurate for square roots of very small numbers and might lead to divergence for very large numbers (why?).
- Design a different *sqrIter* function which stops if the *change* from one iteration to the next is a small fraction of the guess. E.g.

$$abs((x_{i+1} - x_i)/x_i) < 0.001$$

Complete:

def *sqrIter*(*guess*: double, *x*: double): double = ?

Semantics of Function Application

- One simple rule: A function application $f(A)$ is evaluated by
 - replacing the application with the function's body where
 - actual parameters A replace formal parameters of f .
- This can be formalised as a *rewriting of the program itself*:

$$\mathbf{def} f(x) = B ; \dots f(A) \longrightarrow \mathbf{def} f(x) = B ; \dots [A/x] B$$

- Here, $[A/x] B$ stands for B with all occurrences of x replaced by A .
- $[A/x] B$ is called a *substitution*.

Rewriting Example:

Consider *gcd*:

```
def gcd(a: int, b: int) = if (b == 0) a else gcd (b, a % b)
```

Then *gcd* (14, 21) evaluates as follows:

```
gcd (14, 21)
→ if (21 == 0) 14 else gcd (21, 14 % 21)
→ gcd (21, 14)
→ if (14 == 0) 21 else gcd (14, 21 % 14)
→→ gcd (14, 7)
→ if (7 == 0) 14 else gcd (7, 14 % 7)
→→ gcd (7, 0)
→ if (0 == 0) 7 else gcd (0, 7 % 0)
→ 7
```

Another rewriting example:

Consider *factorial*:

```
def factorial (n: int): int = if (n == 0) 1 else n * factorial (n - 1)
```

Then *factorial*(5) rewrites as follows:

```
factorial (5)
→ if (5 == 0) 1 else 5 * factorial (5 - 1)
→ 5 * factorial (5 - 1)
→ 5 * factorial (4)
→ ... → 5 * (4 * factorial (3))
→ ... → 5 * (4 * (3 * factorial (2)))
→ ... → 5 * (4 * (3 * (2 * factorial (1))))
→ ... → 5 * (4 * (3 * (2 * (1 * factorial (0))))
→ ... → 5 * (4 * (3 * (2 * (1 * 1))))
→ ... → 120
```

Question:

What differences are there between the two rewrite sequences?

Tail Recursion

- Implementation note: If a function calls itself as its last action, the function's stack frame can be re-used. This is called “tail recursion”.
- \Rightarrow Tail-recursive functions are iterative processes.
- More generally, if the last action of a function is a call to another (possibly the same) function, only a single stack frame is needed for both functions. Such calls are called “tail calls”.

Exercise: Design a tail-recursive version of *factorial*.

First-Class Functions

- Most functional languages treat functions as “first-class values”.
- That is, like any other value, a function may be passed as a parameter or returned as a result.
- This provides a flexible mechanism for program composition.
- Functions which take other functions as parameters or return them as results are called “higher-order” functions..

Example

- Sum integers between a and b :

```
def sumInts ( $a$ : int,  $b$ : int): double =  
    if ( $a > b$ ) 0.0 else  $a + \text{sumInts } (a + 1, b)$ ;
```

- Sum cubes of all integers between a and b :

```
def cube ( $a$ : int) =  $a * a * a$ ;  
def sumCubes ( $a$ : int,  $b$ : int): double =  
    if ( $a > b$ ) 0.0 else  $\text{cube } (a) + \text{sumCubes } (a + 1, b)$ ;
```

- Sum reciprocals between a and b

```
def sumReciprocals ( $a$ : int,  $b$ : int): double =  
    if ( $a > b$ ) 0 else  $1.0 / a + \text{sumReciprocals } (a + 1, b)$ ;
```

- These are all special cases of $\sum_a^b f(n)$ for different values of f .

Summation with a higher-order function

□ Can we factor out the common pattern?

□ Define:

```
def sum(f: int ⇒ double, a: int, b: int): double =  
  if (a > b) 0.0 else f(a) + sum(f, a + 1, b);
```

□ Then we can write:

```
def sumInts(a: int, b: int) = sum(id, a, b);  
def sumCubes(a: int, b: int) = sum(cube, a, b);  
def sumReciprocals(a: int, b: int) = sum(reciprocal, a, b);
```

where

```
def id(x: int) = x;  
def cube(x: int) = x * x * x;  
def reciprocal(x: int) = 1.0 / x;
```

Anonymous functions

- Parameterisation by functions tends to create many small functions.
- Sometimes it is cumbersome to have to define the functions using **def**.
- A shorter notation makes use of *anonymous functions*, defined as follows:
 $(x_1 : T_1, \dots, x_n : T_n) \Rightarrow E$ defines a function which maps its parameters x_1, \dots, x_n to the result of the expression E (where E may refer to x_1, \dots, x_n).
- The parameter types T_i may be omitted if they can be reconstructed “from the context”.

- Anonymous functions are not essential in Scala; an anonymous function $(x_1, \dots, x_n) \Rightarrow E$ can always be expressed using a **def** as follows:

$$\{ \mathbf{def} f(x_1 : T_1, \dots, x_n : T_n) = E ; f \}$$

where f is fresh name which is used nowhere else in the program.

- We also say, anonymous functions are “syntactic sugar”.

Summation with Anonymous Functions

Now we can write shorter:

```
def sumInts(a: int, b: int) = sum((x ⇒ x), a, b);
```

```
def sumCubes(a: int, b: int) = sum((x ⇒ x * x * x), a, b);
```

```
def sumReciprocals(a: int, b: int) = sum((x ⇒ 1.0 / x), a, b);
```

Can we do even better?

Hint: *a*, *b* appears everywhere and does not seem to take part in interesting combinations. Can we get rid of it?

Currying

Let's rewrite *sum* as follows.

```
def sum(f: int ⇒ double) = {  
  def sumFun (a: int, b: int): double =  
    if (a > b) 0.0  
    else f(a) + sumFun(a + 1, b);  
  sumFun  
}
```

- *sum* is now a function which returns another function;
- Namely, the specialized summing function which applies the *f* function and sums up the results.

Then we can define:

val *sumInts* = *sum* ($x \Rightarrow x$);

val *sumCubes* = *sum* ($x \Rightarrow x * x * x$);

val *sumReciprocals* = *sum* ($x \Rightarrow 1.0 / x$);

Function values can be applied like other functions:

sumReciprocals (1, 1000)

Curried Application

How are function-returning functions applied?

Example:

```
> sum (cube) (1, 10)
```

```
3025
```

- *sum (cube)* applies *sum* to *cube* and returns the “cube-summing function” (Hence, *sum (cube)* is equivalent to *sumCubes*).
- This function is then applied to the pair *(1, 10)*.
- Hence, function application associates to the left:

$$\begin{aligned} \textit{sum} (\textit{cube}) (1, 10) & \text{ == } (\textit{sum} (\textit{cube})) (1, 10) \\ & \text{ == } \textit{val} \textit{sc} = \textit{sum} (\textit{cube}) ; \textit{sc} (1, 10) \end{aligned}$$

Curried Definition

- The style of function-returning functions is so useful in FP, that we have special syntax for it.
- For instance, the next definition of *sum* is equivalent to the previous one, but shorter:

```
def sum (f: (int, int) ⇒ double) (a; int, b: int): double = {  
  if (a > b) 0.0  
  else f(a) + sum(f)(a + 1, b)  
}
```

Generally, a curried function definition

$$\mathbf{def} f (args_1) \dots (args_n) = E$$

where $n > 1$ expands to

$$\mathbf{def} f (args_1) \dots (args_{n-1}) = (\mathbf{def} g (args_n) = E ; g)$$

where g is a fresh identifier. Or, shorter:

$$\mathbf{def} f (args_1) \dots (args_{n-1}) = (args_n) \Rightarrow E$$

Performing this step n times yields that

$$\mathbf{def} f (args_1) \dots (args_{n-1}) (args_n) = E$$

is equivalent to

$$\mathbf{def} f = (args_1) \Rightarrow (args_2) \Rightarrow \dots (args_n) \Rightarrow E$$

- Again, parentheses around single-name formal parameters may be dropped.
- This style of function definition and application is called *currying* after its promoter, Haskell B. Curry.
- Actually, the idea goes back further to Frege and Schönfinkel, but the name “curried” caught on (maybe because “schönfinkeled” does not sound so well.)

Exercises:

1. The *sum* function uses a linear recursion. Can you write a tail-recursive one by filling in the ??'s?

```
def sum f (a: int, b: int): double = {  
    def iter (a: int, result: double): double = {  
        if (??) ??  
        else iter (??, ??)  
    }  
    iter (??, ??)  
}
```

2. Write a function *product* that computes the product of the values of functions at points over a given range.
3. Write *factorial* in terms of *product*.
4. Can you write an even more general function which generalizes both *sum* and *product*?