

Evaluation of Function Application (Repetition)

One simple rule: A function application $f(e_1, \dots, e_n)$ is evaluated by

- Evaluating expressions e_1, \dots, e_n to values v_1, \dots, v_n , and
- replacing the application with the function's body where,
- actual parameters v_1, \dots, v_n replace formal parameters of f .

This can be formalised as a *rewriting of the program itself*:

$$\begin{aligned} & \mathbf{def} f(x_1, \dots, x_n) = B ; \dots f(v_1, \dots, v_n) \\ \rightarrow & \mathbf{def} f(x_1, \dots, x_n) = B ; \dots [v_1/x_1, \dots, v_n/x_n] B \end{aligned}$$

Here, $[v_1/x_1, \dots, v_n/x_n] B$ stands for B with all occurrences of x_i replaced by v_i .

$[v_1/x_1, \dots, v_n/x_n]$ is called a *substitution*.

Rewriting Example:

Consider *gcd*:

```
def gcd(a: int, b: int): 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)
→ if (False) 14 else gcd(21, 14 % 21)
→ gcd(21, 14 % 21)
→ gcd(21, 14)
→ if (14 == 0) 21 else gcd(14, 21 % 14)
→ → gcd(14, 21 % 14)
→ gcd(14, 7)
→ if (7 == 0) 14 else gcd(7, 14 % 7)
→ → 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
```

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”.

⇒ 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*.

Value Definitions

- A definition

def f = expr

introduces *f* as a name for the *expression expr*.

- *expr* will be evaluated every time the name *f* is used.
- In other words, *def f* introduces a parameterless function.
- By contrast a value definition

val x = expr

introduces *x* as a name for the *value* of expression *expr*.

- *expr* will be evaluated once at the point of the value definition.

Example:

```
> val x = 2
val x: int = 2
> val y = square(x)
val y: int = 4
> y
4
```

Example:

```
> def loop: int = loop
def loop: int
> val x: int = loop
```

(infinite loop)

First-Class Functions

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 else a + sumInts(a + 1, b)
```

Sum the cubes of all integers between a and b :

```
def cube(x: int): double = x * x * x  
def sumCubes(a: int, b: int): double =  
    if (a > b) 0 else cube(a) + 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 + sumReciprocals(a + 1, b)
```

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

Can we factor out the common pattern?

Summation with a higher-order function

Define:

```
def sum (f: int ⇒ double, a: int, b: int): double = {  
    if (a > b) 0  
    else f(a) + sum(f, a + 1, b)  
}
```

Then we can write:

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

where

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

The type `int ⇒ double` is the type of functions that take arguments of type `int` and return results of type `double`.

Anonymous functions

- Parameterisation by functions tends to create many small functions.
- Sometimes it is cumbersome to have to define these functions using *def*.
- A shorter notation makes use of *anonymous functions*.
- Example: the function which cubes its integer input is written

$$x: int \Rightarrow x * x * x$$

Here, $x: int$ is the function's **parameter**, and $x * x * x$ is its **body**.

- The parameter type can be omitted if it is clear (to the compiler) from the context.
- If there are several parameters, they have to be included in parentheses. Example:

$$(x: int, y: int) \Rightarrow x + y$$

Anonymous Functions Are Syntactic Sugar

- Generally, $(x_1 : T_1, \dots, x_n : T_n) \Rightarrow E$ 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).
- An anonymous function $(x_1 : T_1, \dots, x_n : T_n \Rightarrow E)$ 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): double = sum(x ⇒ x, a, b);  
def sumCubes(a: int, b: int): double = sum(x ⇒ x * x * x, a, b);  
def sumReciprocals(a: int, b: int): double = 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 sumF (a: int, b: int): double =  
        if (a > b) 0  
        else f(a) + sumF (a + 1, b);  
    sumF  
}
```

- *sum* is now a function which returns another function, namely the specialized summing function *sumF* which applies the *f* function and sums up the results. Then we can define:

```
def sumInts = sum (x ⇒ x)  
def sumCubes = sum (x ⇒ x * x * x)  
def sumReciprocals = sum (x ⇒ 1.0/x)
```

- These functions can be applied like other functions:

```
> sumCubes(1, 10) + sumReciprocals (10, 20)
```

Curried Application

How are function-returning functions applied?

Example:

```
> sum (cube) (1, 10)
3025.0
```

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

$$sum (cube) (1, 10) == (sum (cube)) (1, 10)$$

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 ⇒ double) (a: int, b: int): double =  
  if (a > b) 0  
  else f(a) + sum (f) (a + 1, b)
```

Generally, a curried function definition

```
def f (args1) ... (argsn) = E
```

where $n > 1$ expands to

```
def f (args1) ... (argsn-1) = ( def g (argsn) = 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

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

- This style of function definition and application is called *currying* after its promoter, Haskell B. Curry, a logician of the 20th century.
- Actually, the idea goes back further Schönfinkel, but the name “curried” caught on (maybe because “schönfinkeled” is harder to pronounce.)

Function Types

Question: Given

```
def sum (f: int ⇒ double) (a: int, b: int): double = ...
```

What is the type of *sum*?

Note that function types associate to the *right*. I.e.

$$int \Rightarrow int \Rightarrow int$$

is equivalent to

$$int \Rightarrow (int \Rightarrow int)$$

Exercises:

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

```
def sum (f: int => double) (a: int, b: int): double = {  
  def iter (a, result) = {  
    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*?

Finding Fixed Points of Functions

- A number x is called a *fixed point* of a function f

$$f(x) = x$$

- For some functions f we can locate the fixed point by beginning with an initial guess and then applying f repeatedly.

$$x, f(x), f(f(x)), f(f(f(x))), \dots$$

until the value does not change anymore (or the change is within a small tolerance).

This leads to the following "fixed-point finding function":

```
val tolerance = 0.0001;
def isCloseEnough(x: double, y: double) = abs((x - y) / x) < tolerance;
def fixedPoint(f: double ⇒ double)(firstGuess: double) = {
  def iterate(guess: double): double = {
    val next = f(guess);
    if (isCloseEnough(guess, next)) next
    else iterate(next)
  }
  iterate(firstGuess)
}
```

Square Roots Again

Here is a *specification* of the *sqrt* function.

$$\begin{aligned} \text{sqrt}(x) &= \text{the } y \text{ such that } y * y = x \\ &= \text{the } y \text{ such that } y = x / y \end{aligned}$$

Hence, $\text{sqrt}(x)$ is a fixed point of the function $(y \Rightarrow x / y)$.

This suggests that $\text{sqrt}(x)$ can be computed by fixed point iteration:

```
def sqrt(x: double) =  
    fixedPoint(y => x / y)(1.0)
```

Unfortunately, this does not converge. Let's instrument the fixedpoint function with a print statement which keeps track of the current *guess* value:

```
def fixedPoint (f: double ⇒ double) (firstGuess: double) = {  
  def iterate (guess: double): double = {  
    val next = f(guess);  
    java.lang.System.out.println (next);  
    if (isCloseEnough (guess, next)) next  
    else iterate (next)  
  }  
  iterate (firstGuess)  
}
```

Then, *sqrt* (2) yields:

```
2.0  
1.0  
2.0  
1.0  
2.0  
...
```

One way to control such oscillations is to prevent the guess from changing too much. This can be achieved by *averaging* successive values of the original sequence:

```
> def sqrt (x: double) = fixedPoint (y => (y + x / y) / 2) (1.0)
> sqrt (2.0)
1.5
1.4166666666666665
1.4142156862745097
1.4142135623746899
1.4142135623746899
```

In fact, expanding the *fixedPoint* function yields exactly our previous definition of fixed point from week1.

Functions as Returned Values

- The previous examples showed that the expressive power of a language is considerably enhanced if functions can be passed as arguments.
- The next example shows that functions which return functions can also be very useful.
- Consider again fixed point iterations.
- We started with the observation that \sqrt{x} is a fixed point of the function $y \Rightarrow x / y$.
- Then we made the iteration converge by averaging successive values.
- This technique of *average dampening* is so general enough that it can be wrapped in another function.

```
def averageDamp(f: double  $\Rightarrow$  double)(x: double) = (x + f(x)) / 2
```


- Using *averageDamp*, we can reformulate the square root function as follows.

```
def sqrt(x: double) = fixedPoint(averageDamp(y => x/y))(1.0)
```

- This expresses the elements of the algorithm as clearly as possible.

Exercise: Write a function for cube roots using *fixedPoint* and *averageDamp*.

Summary

- We have seen last week that functions are essential abstractions, because they permit us to introduce general methods of computing as explicit, named elements in our programming language.
- This week we have seen that these abstractions can be combined by higher-order functions to create further abstractions.
- As programmers, we should look out for opportunities to abstract and to reuse.
- The highest possible level of abstraction is not always the best, but it is important to know abstraction techniques, so that one can use abstractions where appropriate.

Language Elements Seen So Far

- We have seen language elements to express types, expressions and definitions.
- Their context free syntax is given below in extended Backus-Naur form, where ‘|’ denotes alternatives, [...] denotes option (0 or 1), and {...} denotes repetition (0 or more).

Types:

Type = *SimpleType* | *FunctionType*
FunctionType = *SimpleType* '⇒' *Type* | '(' [*Types*] ') '⇒' *Type*
SimpleType = *byte* | *short* | *char* | *int* | *long* | *double* | *float*
| *boolean* | *String*
Types = *Type* {',' *Type*}

Types can be:

- number types *int* or *double* (also *byte*, *short*, *char*, *long*, *float*),
- the type *boolean* with values ***true*** and ***false***,
- the type *String*,
- function types.

Expressions:

Expr = *InfixExpr* | *FunctionExpr* | **if** '(' *Expr* ')' *Expr* **else** *Expr*
InfixExpr = *PrefixExpr* | *InfixExpr* *Operator* *InfixExpr*
Operator = *ident*
PrefixExpr = ['+' | '-' | '!' | '~'] *SimpleExpr*
SimpleExpr = *ident* | *literal* | *SimpleExpr* '.' *ident* | *Block*
FunctionExpr = *Bindings* '⇒' *Expr*
Bindings = *ident* [':' *SimpleType*] | '(' [*Binding* {',' *Binding*}] ')'
Binding = *ident* [':' *Type*]
Block = '{' {*Def* ';' } *Expr* '{'

Expressions can be:

- identifiers such as x , *isGoodEnough*,
- literals, such as 0, 1.0, "abc",
- function applications, such as *sqrt*(x),
- operator applications, such as $-x$, $@y + x@$,
- selections, such as *java.lang.System.out.println*,
- conditionals, such as **if** ($x < 0$) $-x$ **else** x ,
- blocks, such as { **val** $x = \text{abs}(y)$; $x * 2$ }
- anonymous functions, such as $(x \Rightarrow x + 1)$.

Definitions:

$Def = FunDef \mid ValDef$

$FunDef = \mathbf{def} \textit{ident} ['(' [Parameters] ')'] [':' Type] '=' Expr$

$ValDef = \mathbf{val} \textit{ident} [':' Type] '=' Expr$

$Parameter = [\mathbf{def}] \textit{ident} ':' Type$

$Parameters = Parameter \{ ',' Parameter \}$

Defintions can be:

- Function definitions such as $\mathbf{def} \textit{square}(x: \textit{int}) = x * x$
- Value definitions such as $\mathbf{val} y = \textit{square}(2)$