

CS 457/557: Functional Languages

Lecture 1: Introduction

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What is Functional Programming?

What is Functional Programming?

- ◆ An alternative to dysfunctional programming?
- ◆ Programming with functions?
- ◆ Programming without side-effects?

What is Functional Programming?

- ◆ Functional programming is a style of programming that emphasizes the evaluation of expressions, rather than execution of commands
- ◆ Expressions are formed by using functions to combine basic values
- ◆ A functional language is a language that supports and encourages programming in a functional style

Functions:

In a pure functional language:

- ◆ The result of a function depends *only* on the values of its inputs:
 - Like functions in mathematics
 - No global variables / side-effects
- ◆ Functions are first-class values:
 - They can be stored in data structures
 - They can be passed as arguments or returned as results of other functions

Functional Languages:

- ◆ Pure, lazy evaluation, strong typing:
 - Haskell, Miranda, Orwell, ...
- ◆ Impure, strict evaluation, strong typing:
 - Standard ML (SML), Objective CAML (OCaml), F#, ...
- ◆ Impure, strict evaluation, dynamic typing:
 - Lisp, Scheme, Erlang, ...
- ◆ Pure, strict evaluation, strong typing:
 - Relatively unexplored (Timber, Habit, ...)

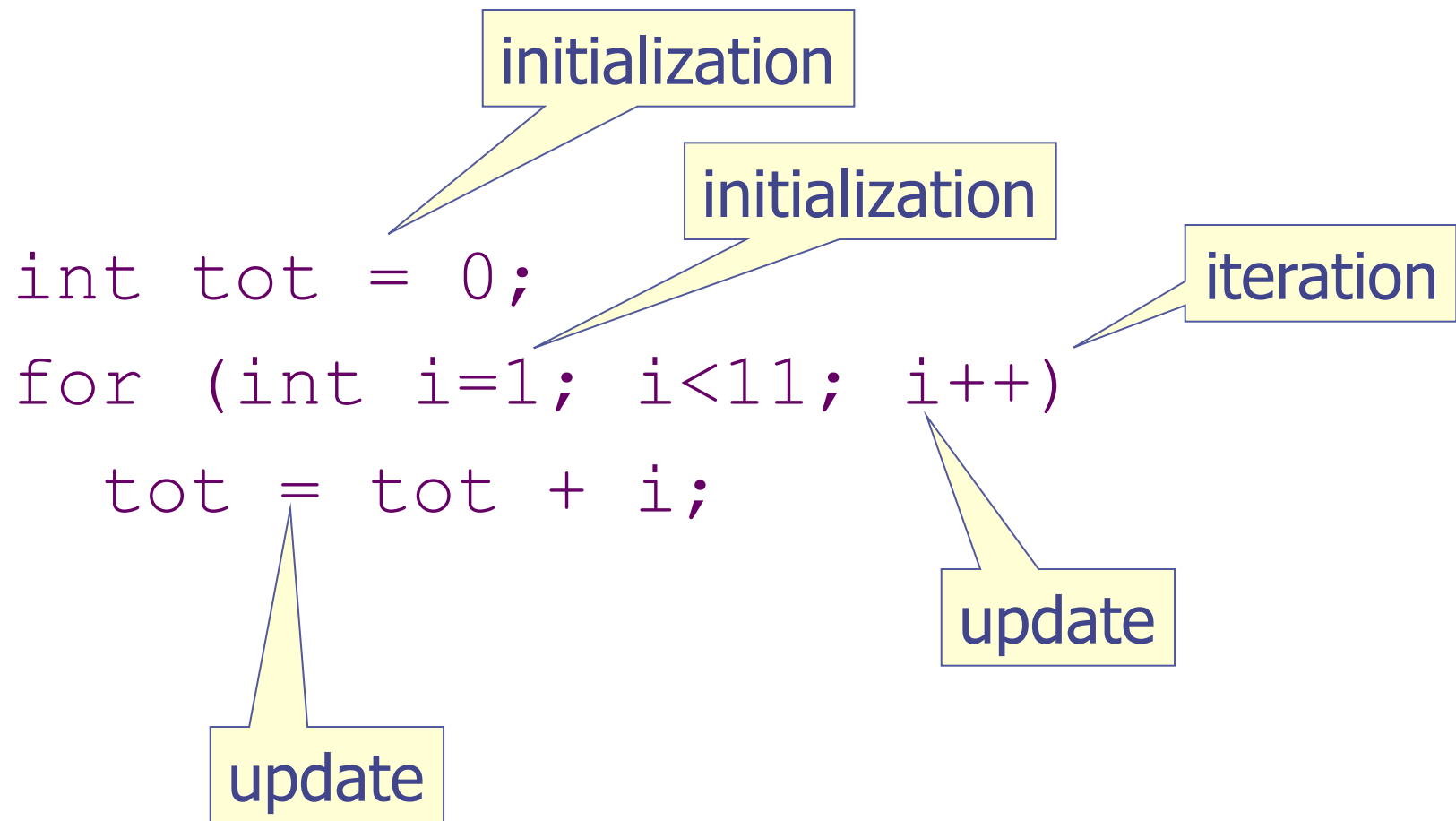
Good News, Bad News:

- ◆ Good News: You can write Functional Programs in almost any language
- ◆ Bad News: You can write “C code” in a functional language ...

Example:

- ◆ Write a program to add up the numbers from 1 to 10

In C, C++, Java, C#, ... :



implicit result returned in the variable `tot`

In ML:

accumulating parameter

```
let fun sum i tot  
    = if i > 10  
      then tot  
      else sum (i+1) (tot+i)  
in sum 1 0  
end
```

initialization

(tail) recursion

result is the value of this expression

In Haskell:

```
sum [1..10]
```

combining
function

the list of numbers to add

result is the value of this expression

Reflections:

- ◆ I've tried to use "idiomatic" solutions in each language
- ◆ This example makes Haskell look good
- ◆ But it wouldn't be too difficult to adapt any one solution to any of the other languages
- ◆ An imperative version of the Haskell solution would require linked list code that is built-in to Haskell
- ◆ An objective comparison between languages should account for library code as well as the main program

Reflections (continued):

- ◆ What makes a good program?
 - correctness
 - clarity
 - conciseness (none of my solutions are optimally concise!)
 - Performance (not really an issue here)

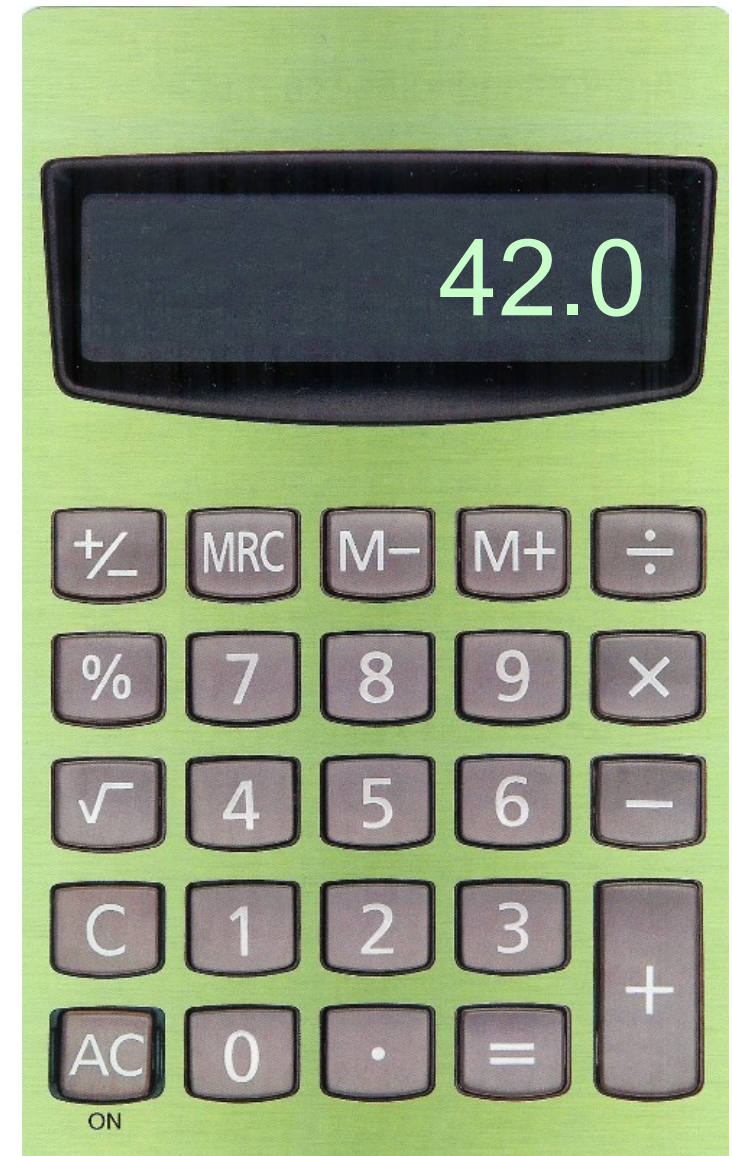
Raising the Level of Abstraction:

"If you want to reduce [design time], you have to stop thinking about something you used to have to think about." (Joe Stoy, quoted on the Haskell mailing list)

- ◆ Example: memory allocation
- ◆ Example: data representation
- ◆ Example: order of evaluation
- ◆ Example: (restrictive) type annotations

Computing by Calculating:

- ◆ Calculators are a great tool for manipulating numbers
- ◆ Buttons for:
 - entering digits
 - combining values
 - using stored values
- ◆ Not so good for manipulating large quantities of data
- ◆ Not good for manipulating other types of data



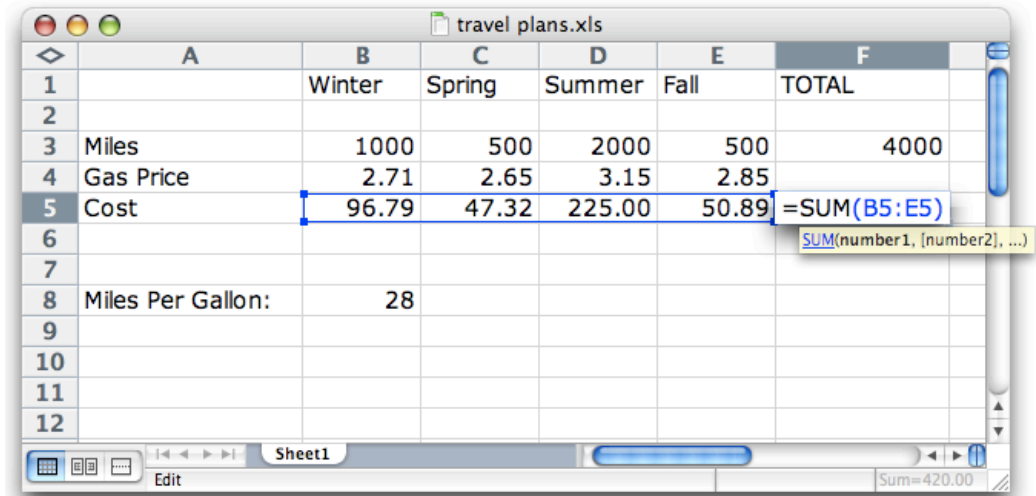
Computing by Calculating:

- ◆ What if we could “calculate” with other types of value?
- ◆ Buttons for:
 - entering pixels
 - combining pictures
 - using stored pictures
- ◆ I wouldn't want to calculate a whole picture this way!
- ◆ I probably want to deal with *several different types of data at the same time*



Computing by Calculating:

- ◆ Spreadsheets are better suited for dealing with larger quantities of data
- ◆ Values can be named (but not operations)
- ◆ Calculations (i.e., programs) are recorded so that they can be repeated, inspected, modified
- ◆ Good if data fits an “array”
- ◆ Not so good for multiple types of data



The screenshot shows a spreadsheet window titled "travel plans.xls". The spreadsheet has columns A through F and rows 1 through 12. The data is as follows:

	A	B	C	D	E	F
1		Winter	Spring	Summer	Fall	TOTAL
2						
3	Miles	1000	500	2000	500	4000
4	Gas Price	2.71	2.65	3.15	2.85	
5	Cost	96.79	47.32	225.00	50.89	=SUM(B5:E5)
6						
7						
8	Miles Per Gallon:	28				
9						
10						
11						
12						

The spreadsheet interface includes a status bar at the bottom showing "Sum=420.00". A tooltip for the formula cell F5 displays "SUM(number1, [number2], ...)".

Functional Languages:

- ◆ Multiple types of data
 - Primitive types, lists, functions, ...
 - Flexible user defined types ...
- ◆ Operations for combining values to build new values (combinators)
- ◆ Ability to name values and operations (abstraction)
- ◆ Scale to arbitrary size and shape data
- ◆ “Algebra of programming” supports reasoning

Quick Introductions

The read-eval-print loop:

1. Enter expression at the prompt
2. Hit return
- 3. The expression is read, checked, and evaluated*
- 4. Result is displayed*
5. Repeat at Step 1

Simple Expressions:

Expressions can be constructed using:

◆ The usual arithmetic operations:

$1 + 2 * 3$

◆ Comparisons:

$1 == 2$

$'a' < 'z'$

◆ Boolean operators:

$True \ \&\& \ False$

$not \ False$

◆ Built-in primitives:

$odd \ 2$

$sin \ 0.5$

◆ Parentheses:

$odd \ (2 + 1)$

$(1 + 2) * 3$

◆ Etc ...

Expressions Have Types:

- ◆ The *type* of an expression tells you what kind of value you might expect to see if you evaluate that expression
- ◆ In Haskell, read “`::`” as “has type”
- ◆ Examples:
 - `1 :: Int`, `'a' :: Char`, `True :: Bool`, `1.2 :: Float`, ...
- ◆ You can even ask Hugs for the type of an expression: `:t expr`

Type Errors:

```
Hugs> 'a' && True
ERROR - Type error in application
*** Expression      : 'a' && True
*** Term            : 'a'
*** Type            : Char
*** Does not match : Bool
```

```
Hugs> odd 1 + 2
ERROR - Cannot infer instance
*** Instance        : Num Bool
*** Expression      : odd 1 + 2
```

```
Hugs>
```


Pairs:

- ◆ A pair packages two values into one

(1, 2) ('a', 'z') (True, False)

- ◆ Components can have different types

(1, 'z') ('a', False) (True, 2)

- ◆ The type of a pair whose first component is of type **A** and second component is of type **B** is written **(A,B)**

- ◆ What are the types of the pairs above?

Operating on Pairs:

- ◆ There are built-in functions for extracting the first and second component of a pair:
 - $\text{fst} (\text{True}, 2) = \text{True}$
 - $\text{snd} (0, 7) = 7$
- ◆ Is the following property true?
For any pair p , $(\text{fst } p, \text{snd } p) = p$

Lists:

- ◆ Lists can be used to store zero or more elements, in sequence, in a single value:

`[]` `[1, 2, 3]` `['a', 'z']` `[True, True, False]`

- ◆ All of the elements in a list must have the same type
- ◆ The type of a list whose elements are of type `A` is written as `[A]`
- ◆ What are the types of the lists above?

Operating on Lists:

- ◆ There are built-in functions for extracting the head and the tail components of a list:
 - $\text{head } [1,2,3,4] = 1$
 - $\text{tail } [1,2,3,4] = [2,3,4]$
- ◆ Conversely, we can build a list from a given head and tail using the “cons” operator:
 - $1 : [2, 3, 4] = [1, 2, 3, 4]$
- ◆ Is the following property true?
For any list xs , $\text{head } xs : \text{tail } xs = xs$

More Operations on Lists:

◆ Finding the length of a list:

`length [1,2,3,4,5] = 5`

◆ Finding the sum of a list:

`sum [1,2,3,4,5] = 15`

◆ Finding the product of a list:

`product [1,2,3,4,5] = 120`

◆ Applying a function to the elements of a list:

`map odd [1,2,3,4] = [True, False, True, False]`

Continued ...

- ◆ Selecting an element (by position):

`[1,2,3,4,5] !! 3 = 4`

- ◆ Taking an initial prefix (by number):

`take 3 [1,2,3,4,5] = [1,2,3]`

- ◆ Taking an initial prefix (by property):

`takeWhile odd [1,2,3,4,5] = [1]`

- ◆ Checking for an empty list:

`null [1,2,3,4,5] = False`

More ways to Construct Lists:

◆ Concatenation:

$[1,2,3] ++ [4,5] = [1,2,3,4,5]$

◆ Arithmetic sequences:

$[1..10] = [1, 2, 3, 4, 5, 6, 7, 8, 9, 10]$

$[1,3..10] = [1, 3, 5, 7, 9]$

◆ Comprehensions:

$[2 * x \mid x <- [1,2,3,4,5]] = [2, 4, 6, 8, 10]$

$[y \mid y <- [1,2,3,4], \text{odd } y] = [1, 3]$

Strings are Lists:

◆ A String is just a list of Characters

```
['w', 'o', 'w', '!'] = "wow!"
```

```
['a'..'j'] = "abcdefghij"
```

```
"hello, world" !! 7 = 'w'
```

```
length "abcdef" = 6
```

```
"hello, " ++ "world" = "hello, world"
```

```
take 3 "functional" = "fun"
```


Functions:

- ◆ The type of a function that maps values of type **A** to values of type **B** is written **A -> B**
- ◆ Examples:
 - `odd :: Int -> Bool`
 - `fst :: (a, b) -> a` (a,b are type variables)
 - `length :: [a] -> Int`

Operations on Functions:

◆ Function Application. If $f :: A \rightarrow B$ and $x :: A$, then $f x :: B$

◆ Notice that function application associates more tightly than any infix operator:

$$f x + y = (f x) + y$$

◆ In types, arrows associate to the right:

$$A \rightarrow B \rightarrow C = A \rightarrow (B \rightarrow C)$$

Example: $\text{take} :: \text{Int} \rightarrow [a] \rightarrow [a]$

$$\text{take } 2 [1,2,3,4] = (\text{take } 2) [1,2,3,4]$$

Sections:

◆ If \oplus is a binary op of type $A \rightarrow B \rightarrow C$, then we can use “sections”:

- $(\oplus) \quad :: A \rightarrow B \rightarrow C$
- $(\text{expr } \oplus) \quad :: B \rightarrow C \quad (\text{assuming } \text{expr} :: A)$
- $(\oplus \text{ expr}) \quad :: A \rightarrow C \quad (\text{assuming } \text{expr} :: B)$

◆ Examples:

- $(1+)$, (2^*) , $(1/)$, (<10) , ...

Higher-order Functions:

◆ $\text{map} :: (a \rightarrow b) \rightarrow [a] \rightarrow [b]$

■ $\text{map } (1+) [1..5] = [2,3,4,5,6]$

◆ $\text{takeWhile} :: (a \rightarrow \text{Bool}) \rightarrow [a] \rightarrow [a]$

■ $\text{takeWhile } (<5) [1..10] = [1,2,3,4]$

◆ $(.) :: (a \rightarrow b) \rightarrow (c \rightarrow a) \rightarrow c \rightarrow b$

■ $(\text{odd} . (1+)) 2 = \text{True}$

“composition”

Definitions:

- ◆ So far, we've been focusing on expressions that we might want to evaluate.
- ◆ What if we wanted to:
 - Define a new constant (i.e., Give a name to the result of an expression)?
 - Define a new function?
- ◆ Definitions are placed in files with a `.hs` suffix that can be loaded into the interpreter

Simple Definitions:

Put the following text in a file "defs.hs":

```
greet name = "hello " ++ name
```

```
square x = x * x
```

```
fact n = product [1..n]
```

Loading Defined Values:

Pass the filename as a command line argument to Hugs, or use the `:l` command from inside Hugs:

```
Main> :l defs
```

```
Main> greet "everybody"
```

```
"hello everybody"
```

```
Main> square 12
```

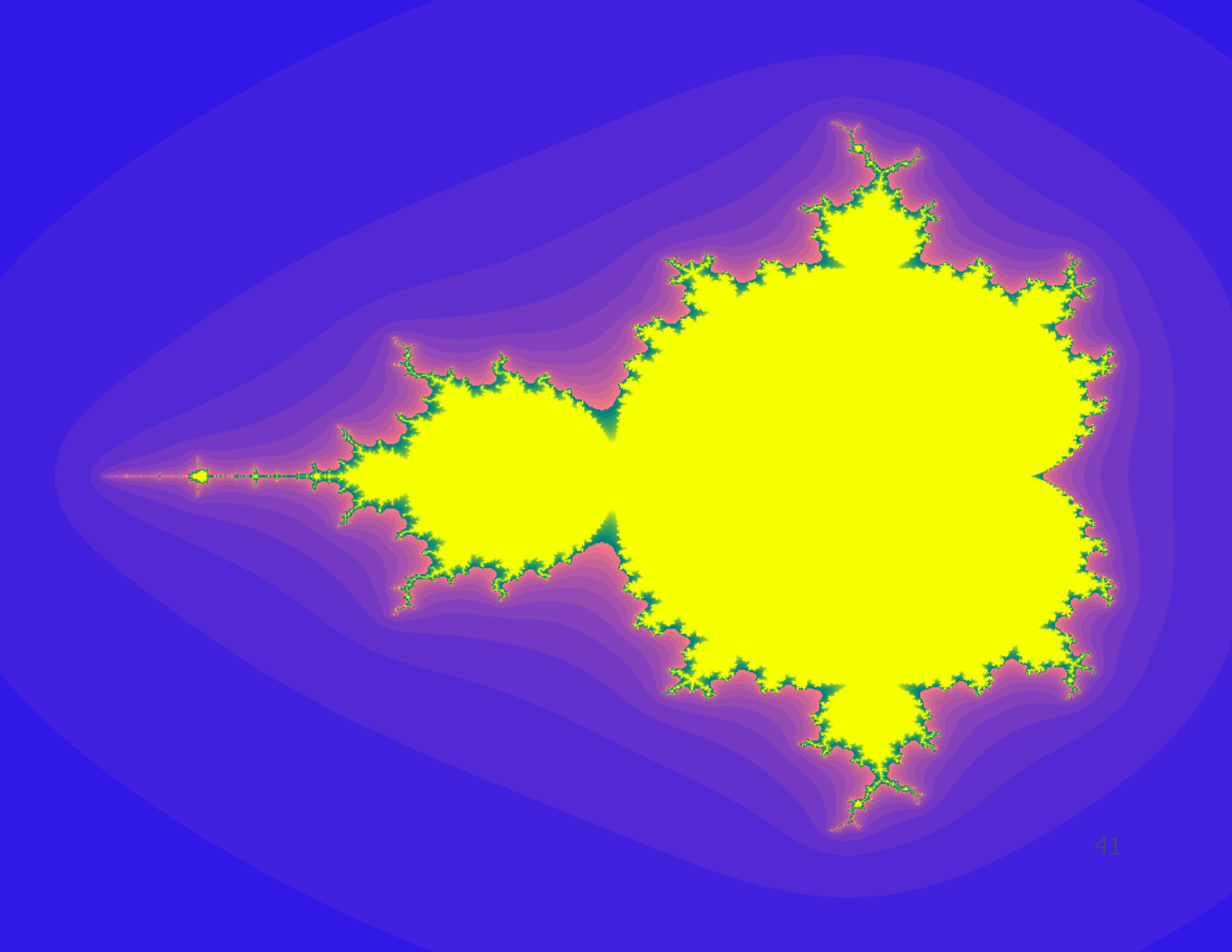
```
144
```

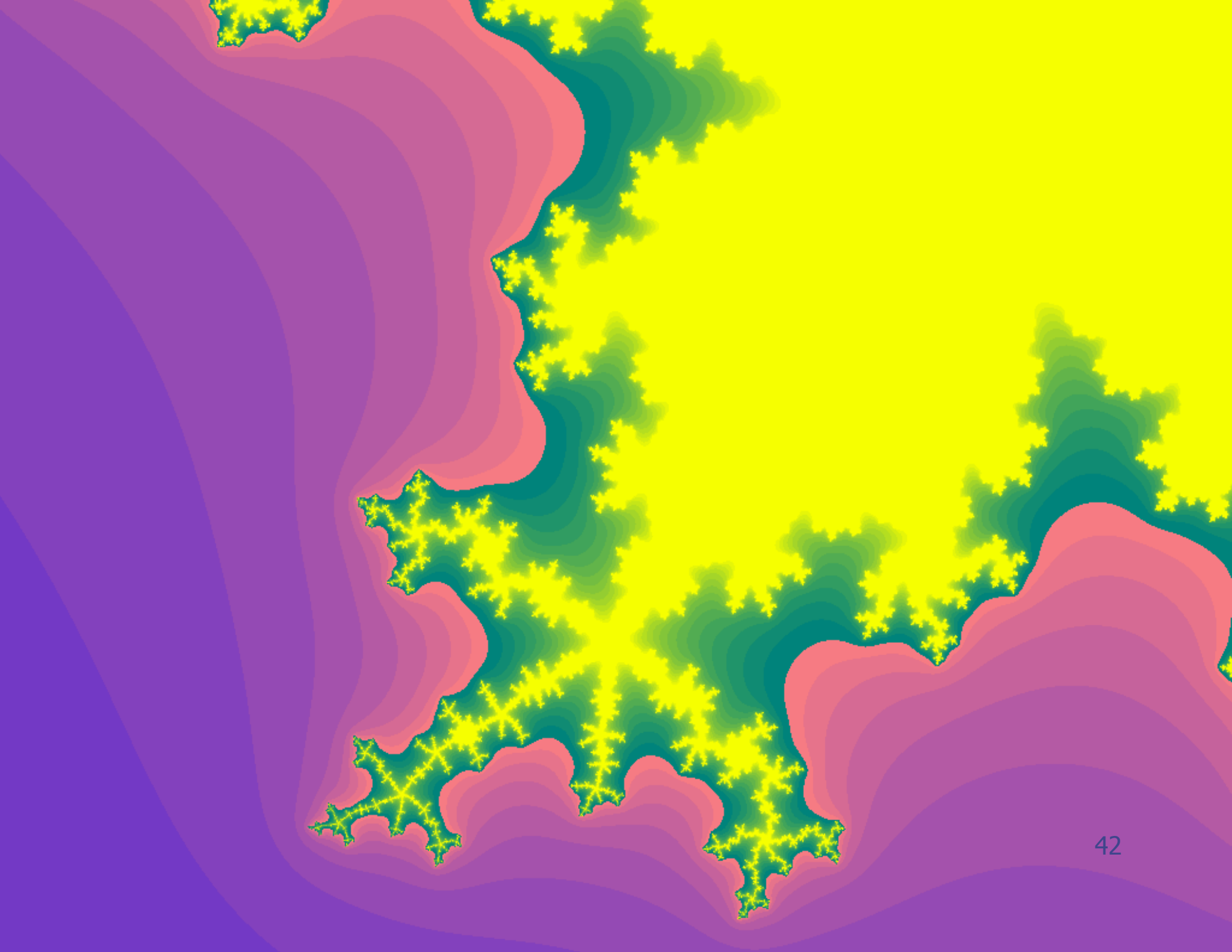
```
Main> fact 32
```

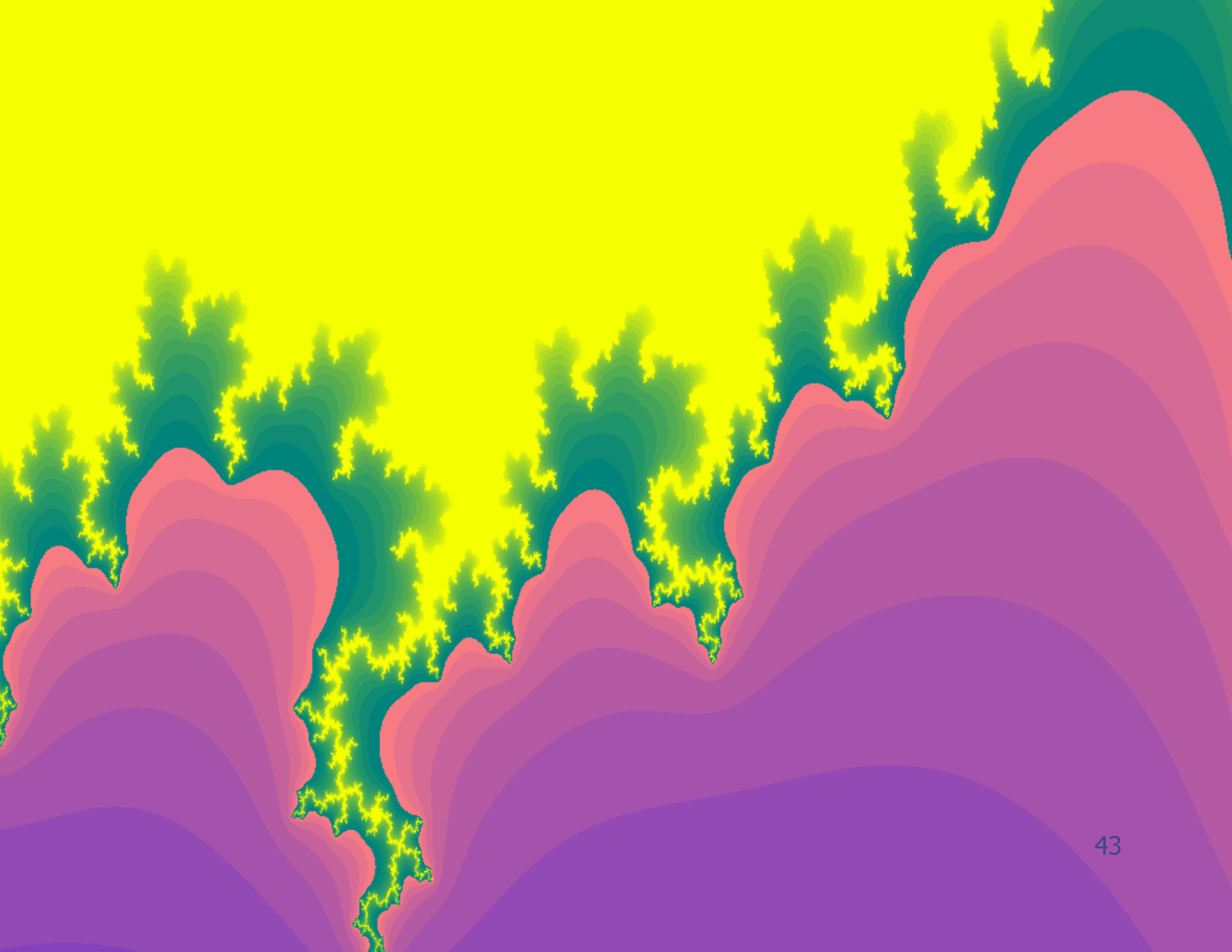
```
263130836933693530167218012160000000
```

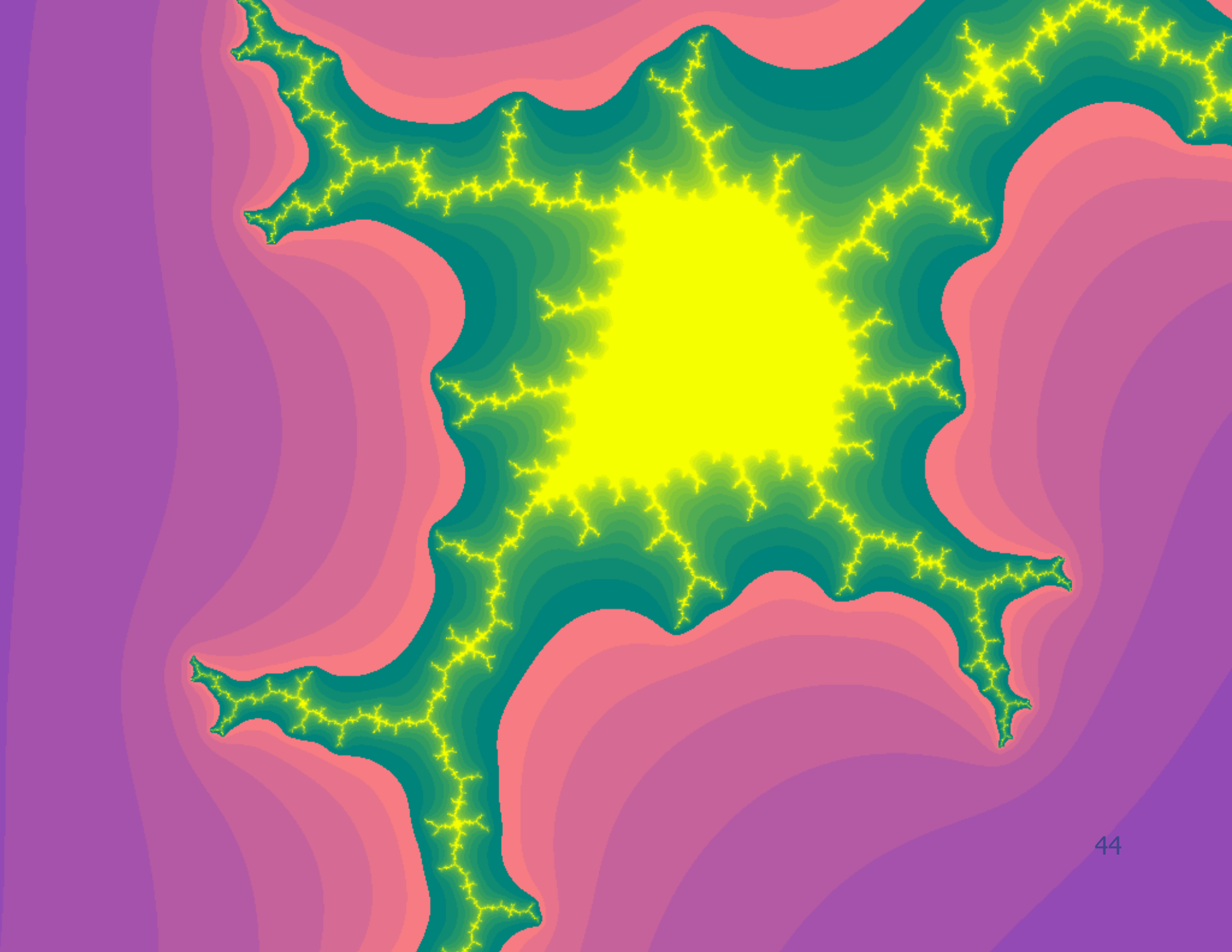
```
Main>
```

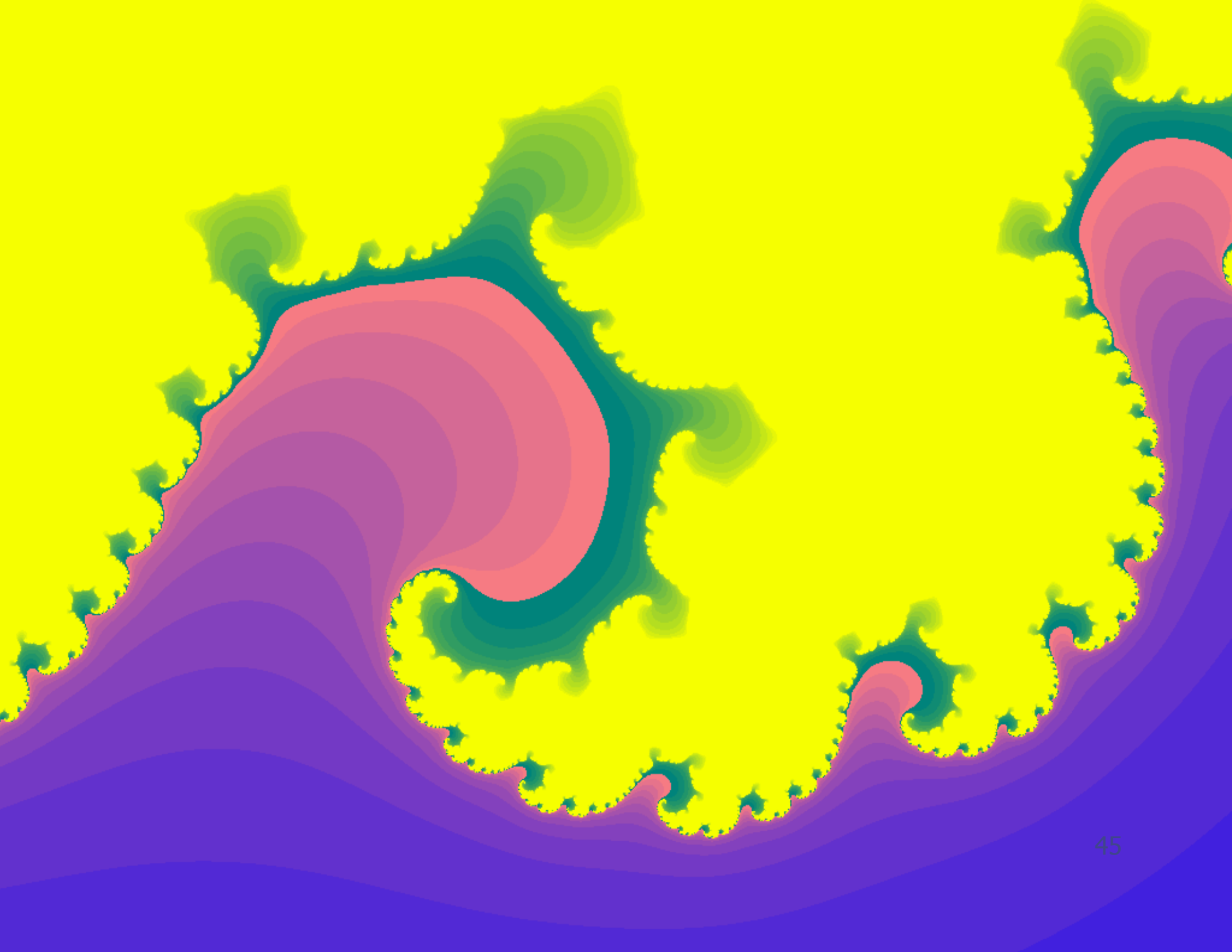
Example: Calculating Fractals











Calculating Fractals:

- ◆ Based on my article “Composing Fractals” that was published as a “functional pearl” in the Journal of functional Programming
- ◆ Flexible programs for drawing Mandelbrot and Julia set fractals in different ways
- ◆ No claim to be the best/fastest fractal drawing program ever created!
- ◆ Illustrates key features of functional programming in an elegant and “calculational” style
- ◆ As it happens, no recursion!

Mandelbrot Sequences:

```
type Point = (Float, Float)
```

```
next          :: Point -> Point -> Point
```

```
next (u,v) (x,y) = (x*x-y*y+u, 2*x*y+v)
```

The source of all that beauty & complexity!

```
mandelbrot    :: Point -> [Point]
```

```
mandelbrot p  = iterate (next p) (0,0)
```

Apply function repeatedly, producing as many elements as we like ...

Converge or Diverge?

```
Fractals> mandelbrot (0,0)
```

```
[(0.0,0.0), (0.0,0.0), (0.0,0.0), (0.0,0.0), (0.0,0.0), (0.0,0.0),  
(0.0,0.0), ^C{Interrupted}
```

```
Fractals> mandelbrot (0.1,0)
```

```
[(0.0,0.0), (0.1,0.0), (0.11,0.0), (0.1121,0.0), (0.1125664,0.0),  
(0.1126712,0.0), (0.1126948,0.0) ^C{Interrupted}
```

```
Fractals> mandelbrot (0.5,0)
```

```
[(0.0,0.0), (0.5,0.0), (0.75,0.0), (1.0625,0.0), (1.628906,0.0),  
(3.153336,0.0), (10.44353,0.0) ^C{Interrupted}
```

```
Fractals> mandelbrot (1,0)
```

```
[(0.0,0.0), (1.0,0.0), (2.0,0.0), (5.0,0.0), (26.0,0.0), (677.0,0.0),  
(458330.0,0.0) ^C{Interrupted}
```

```
Fractals>
```


The Mandelbrot Set:

- ◆ The Mandelbrot Set is the set of all points for which the corresponding Mandelbrot sequence converges
- ◆ How can we test for this?
- ◆ How can we visualize the results?

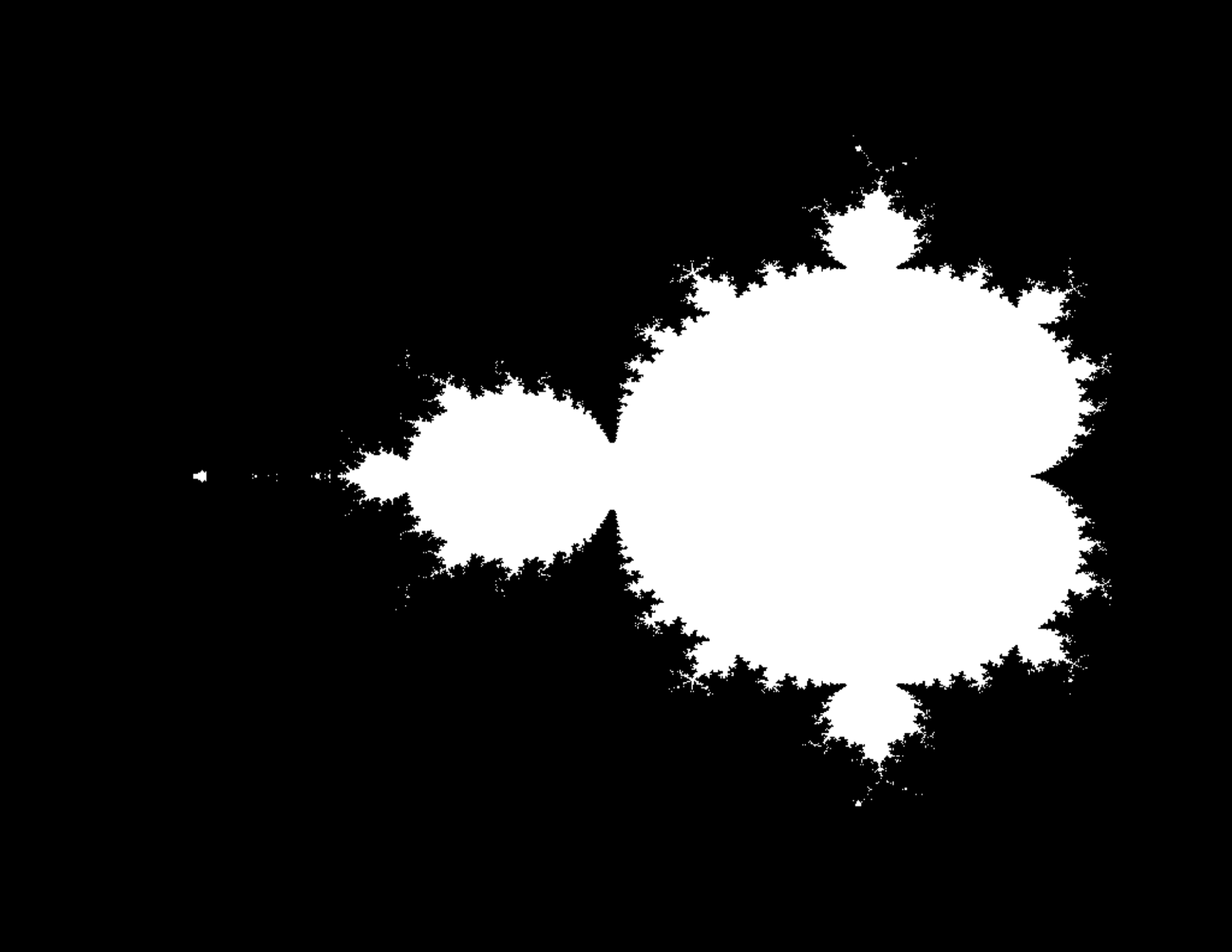
Testing for Membership:

```
fairlyClose      :: Point -> Bool  
fairlyClose (u,v) = (u*u + v*v) < 100
```

An almost arbitrary
constant

```
inMandelbrotSet :: Point -> Bool  
inMandelbrotSet p = all fairlyClose (mandelbrot p)
```

This could take a long time ...



Pragmatics:

- ◆ For points very close to the edge, it may take many steps to determine whether the sequence will converge or not.
- ◆ It is impossible to determine membership with complete accuracy because of rounding errors
- ◆ And besides, the resulting diagram is really dull!
- ◆ If life gives you lemons ... make lemonade!

Approximating Membership:

```
fracImage      :: [color] -> Point -> color
fracImage palette = (palette!!)
                  . length
                  . take n
                  . takeWhile fairlyClose
                  . mandelbrot
  where n = length palette - 1
```

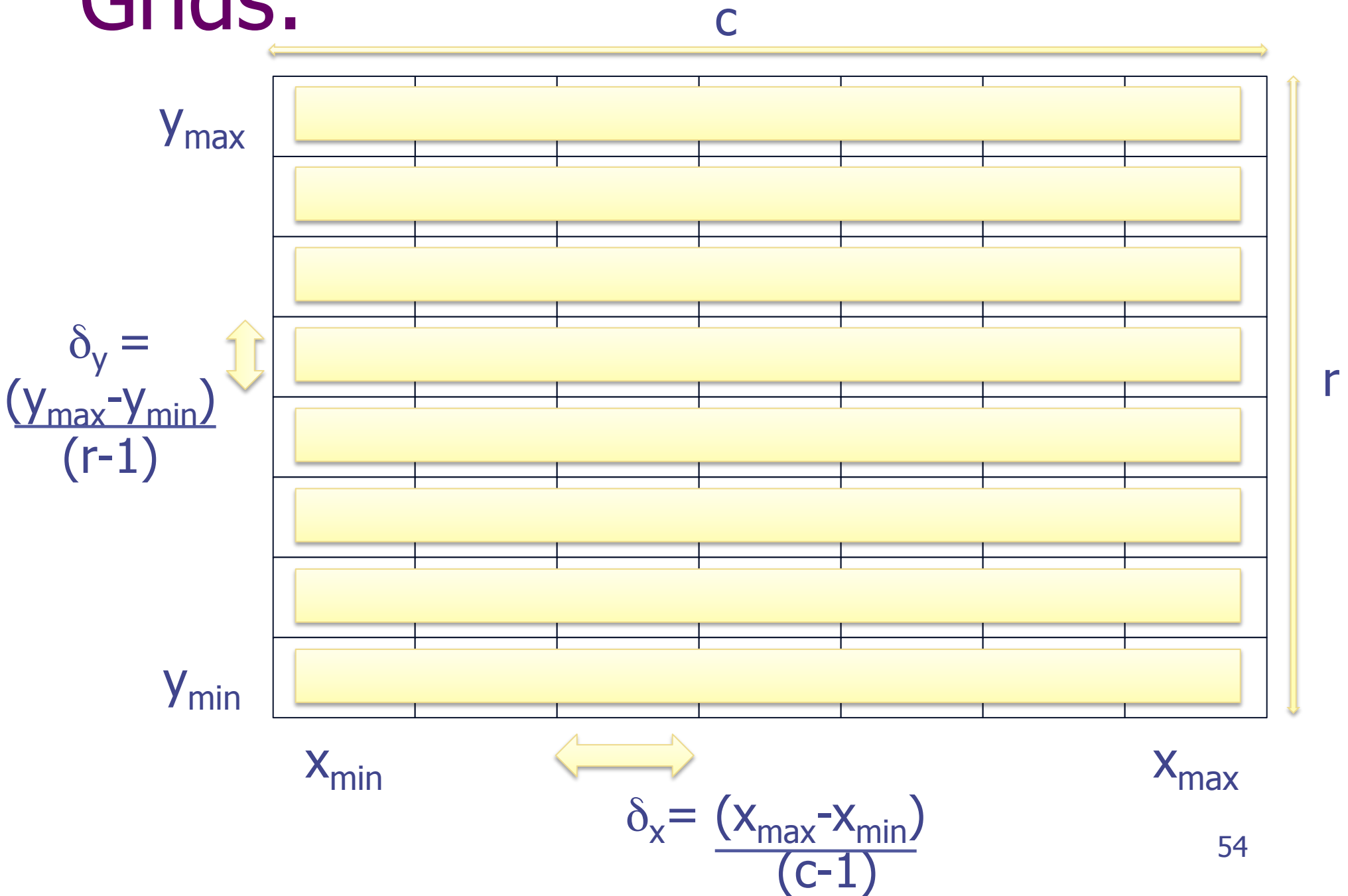
A pipeline of functions ...

Only looks at initial prefix

Now we're using a palette of multiple colors instead of a monochrome membership!

But how are we going to render this?

Grids:



Grids:

```
type Grid a = [[a]]
```

Give meaningful names to types

```
grid :: Int -> Int -> Point -> Point -> Grid Point
grid c r (xmin,ymin) (xmax,ymax)
    = [ [ (x,y) | x <- for c xmin xmax ]
        | y <- for r ymin ymax ]
```

List comprehensions

```
for :: Int -> Float -> Float -> [Float]
for n min max = take n [min, min+delta ..]
  where delta = (max-min) / fromIntegral (n-1)
```

Capture recurring pattern

Some Sample Grids:

```
mandGrid = grid 79 37 (-2.25, -1.5) (0.75, 1.5)
```

```
juliaGrid = grid 79 37 (-1.5, -1.5) (1.5, 1.5)
```

Names make it easier
to refer to previously
defined values!

Images:

Allow for different types of "color"

```
type Image color = Point -> color
```

```
sample :: Grid Point -> Image color -> Grid color
```

```
sample points image
```

```
    = map (map image) points
```

Functions are just regular values ...

Putting it all together:

```
draw :: [color] ->
      Grid Point ->
      (Grid color -> pic) -> pic
draw palette grid render
  = render (sample grid (fracImage palette))
```

Example 1:

```
charPalette :: [Char]
charPalette = "          , . ` \" ~ : ; o - ! | ? / < > X + = { ^ O # % & @ 8 * $ \"

charRender  :: Grid Char -> IO ()
charRender  = putStr . unlines

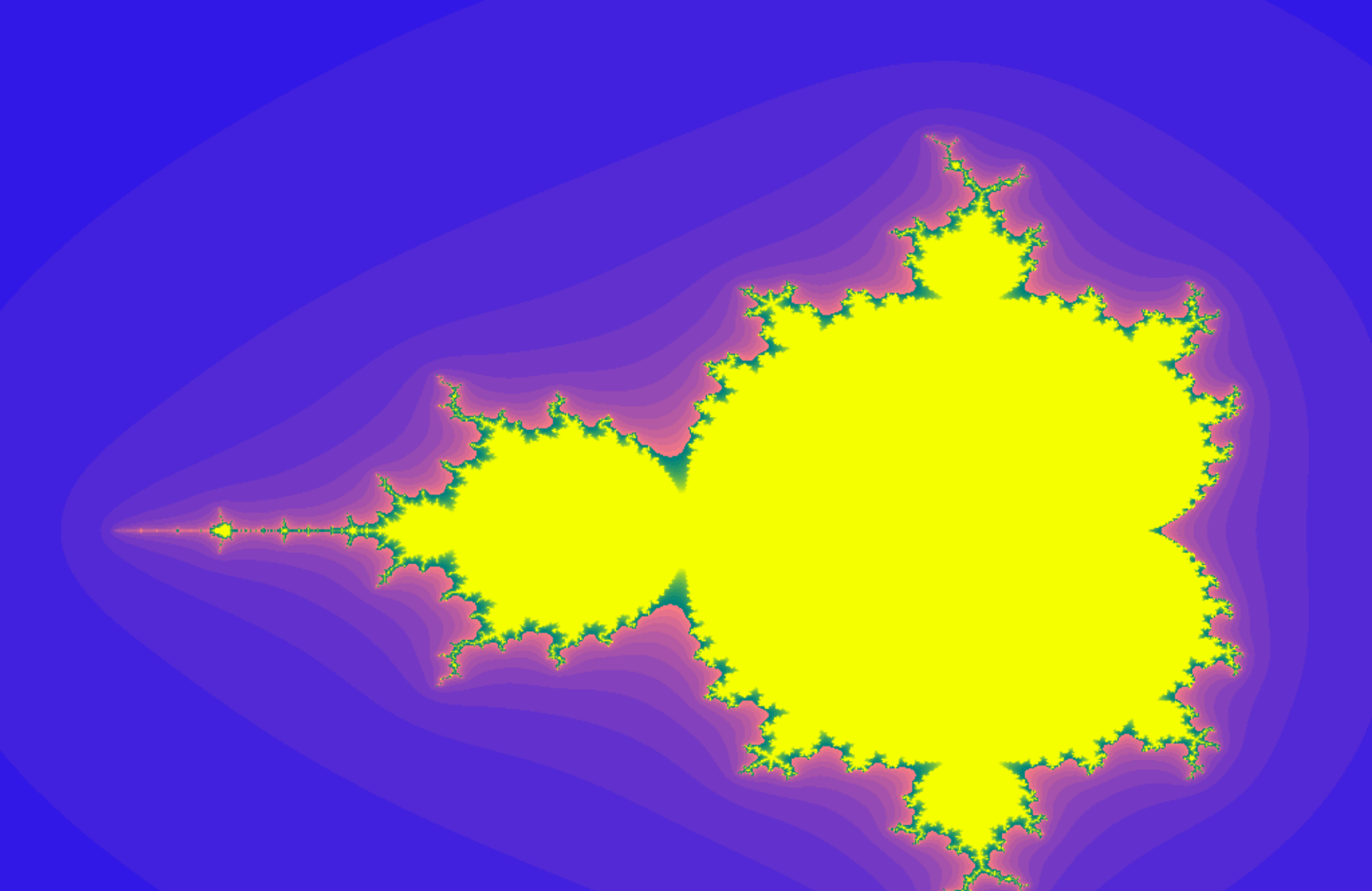
example1 = draw charPalette mandGrid charRender
```


Example 2:

```
type PPMcolor = (Int, Int, Int)

ppmPalette :: [PPMcolor]
ppmPalette = [ ((2*i) `mod` (ppmMax+1)), i, ppmMax-i)
               | i <- [0..ppmMax] ]
ppmMax      = 31 :: Int

ppmRender   :: Grid PPMcolor -> [String]
ppmRender g = ["P3", show w ++ " " ++ show h, show ppmMax]
              ++ [ show r ++ " " ++ show g ++ " " ++ show b
                   | row <- g, (r,g,b) <- row ]
  where w = length (head g)
        h = length g
```



```
draw ppmPalette mandGridHi ppmRender
```

Down with Tangling!

- ◆ Changes to a program may require modifications of the source code in multiple places
- ◆ The implementation of a program feature may be “tangled” through the code
- ◆ Programs are easier to understand and maintain when important changes can be isolated to a single point in the code (and, perhaps, turned into a parameter)
- ◆ A simpler example:
 - Calculate the sum of the squares of the numbers from 1 to 10
 - `sum (map square [1..10])`

Summary:

- ◆ An appealing, high-level approach to program construction in which independent aspects of program behavior are neatly separated
- ◆ It is possible to program in a similar compositional / calculational manner in other languages ...
- ◆ ... but it seems particularly natural in a functional language like Haskell ...