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## Functional Programming— Illustrated in Scheme

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### References:

- Dybvig, (available online and in the library)
- Sebesta Chapter 15.2-15.6, 15.9, 15.10.

Lisp slides © D. Horton 200.  
Scheme slides © S. Stevenson, D. Inkpen 2001.  
Adapted for Scheme © E. Joanis 2000, 2002.  
Modified and updated © S. McIlraith 2004.  
Additional slides use material taken from © G.  
Baumgartner 2001.

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## Scheme on CDF

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Invoking: `scheme`

Exiting: `(exit)` or `Ctrl-D`

Loading filename.scm: `(load ‘‘filename’’)`  
or  
`(load ‘‘filename.scm’’)`

Tracing: `(trace proc_name)`

Transcript:  
`(transcript-on <my_trans>)`  
`(transcript-off)`  
saves a transcript of a session to `<my_trans>`.

Debugger:  
-start: `(debug)`  
-help: `?`  
-go back (read-eval-print level): `(restart 1)`  
or  
`Ctrl-C Ctrl-C`  
-quit: `q`

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## Jumping right in

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### A Scheme procedure

```
(define increment  
  (lambda (n)  
    (+ n 1)  
  )  
)
```

or

```
(define (increment n)  
  (+ n 1)  
)
```

### A call to the procedure

```
(increment 21)
```

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## The Spirit of Lisp-like Languages

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We shall first define a class of **symbolic expressions** in terms of ordered pairs and lists. Then we shall define five elementary **functions and predicates**, and build from them by **composition, conditional expressions** and **recursive definitions** an extensive class of functions of which we shall give a number of examples. We shall then show how these **functions can themselves be expressed as symbolic expressions**, and we shall give a **universal function** *apply* that allows us to compute from the expressions for a given function its value for given arguments. Finally, we shall define some **functions with functions as arguments** and give some useful examples.

McCarthy, J, [1960]. Recursive functions of symbolic expressions and their computation by machine, Part I. *Comm. ACM* 3:4; quoted in Sethi.

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## Pure Functional Languages

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Fundamental concept: **application** of (mathematical) **functions** to **values**

1. **Referential transparency:** The value of a function application is independent of the context in which it occurs (i.e., given the same parameters, it always returns the same results). Or alternatively, a language is referentially transparent if we may replace one expression with another of equal value anywhere in a program without changing the meaning of the program. This is achieved by not having side effects in programs, e.g.,
  - value of  $f(a,b,c)$  depends only on the values of  $f$ ,  $a$ ,  $b$  and  $c$
  - It does not depend on the global state of computation $\Rightarrow$  all vars in function must be parameters

Main advantage: facilitates reasoning about programs and applying program transformations.

See [http://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Referential\\_transparency](http://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Referential_transparency)

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## Pure Functional Languages (cont.)

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2. The concept of assignment is **not** part of functional programming
  - no explicit assignment statements
  - variables bound to values only through the association of actual parameters to formal parameters in function calls
  - function calls have no side effects
  - thus no need to consider global state
3. Control flow is governed by function calls and conditional expressions
  - $\Rightarrow$  no iteration
  - $\Rightarrow$  recursion is widely used

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## Pure Functional Languages (cont.)

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4. All storage management is implicit
  - needs garbage collection
5. Functions are *First Class Values*
  - Can be returned as the value of an expression
  - Can be passed as an argument
  - Can be put in a data structure as a value
- Unnamed functions exist as values

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## A Functional Program

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A program includes:

1. A set of function definitions
2. An expression to be evaluated

E.g. in Scheme:

```
1 ]=> (define (abs-val x)
      (if (>= x 0)
          x
          (- x)))
```

```
;Value: abs-val
```

```
1 ]=> (abs-val (- 3 5))
```

```
;Value: 2
```

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## Jumping Back In

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### The MIT Scheme Interface

```
werewolf 1% scheme
Scheme Microcode Version ...
```

```
1 ]=> (+ 8 3 5 16 9)
;Value: 41
```

```
1 ]=> (define increment (lambda (n) (+ n 1)))
;Value: increment
```

```
1 ]=> (increment 21)
;Value: 22
```

```
1 ]=> (load "incr")
;Loading "incr.scm" -- done
;Value: increment-list
```

```
1 ]=> (increment-list (1 32 7))
;The object 1 is not applicable.
;To continue, call RESTART with an option number:
; (RESTART 2) => Specify a procedure to use in its place.
; (RESTART 1) => Return to read-eval-print level 1.
```

```
2 error> (restart 1)
;Abort!
```

```
1 ]=> (increment-list '(1 32 7))
;Value 1: (2 33 8)
```

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```
1 ]=> (trace increment-list)
;Unspecified return value
```

```
1 ]=> (increment-list '(1 32 7))
```

```
[Entering #[compound-procedure 2 increment-list]
  Args: (1 32 7)]
```

```
[Entering #[compound-procedure 2 increment-list]
  Args: (32 7)]
```

```
[Entering #[compound-procedure 2 increment-list]
  Args: (7)]
```

```
[Entering #[compound-procedure 2 increment-list]
  Args: ()]
```

```
[()]
```

```
  <== #[compound-procedure 2 increment-list]
  Args: ()]
```

```
[(8)]
```

```
  <== #[compound-procedure 2 increment-list]
  Args: (7)]
```

```
[(33 8)]
```

```
  <== #[compound-procedure 2 increment-list]
  Args: (32 7)]
```

```
[(2 33 8)]
```

```
  <== #[compound-procedure 2 increment-list]
  Args: (1 32 7)]
```

```
;Value 3: (2 33 8)
```

```
1 ]=> (exit)
```

```
Kill Scheme (y or n)? Yes
Happy Happy Joy Joy.
werewolf 2%
```

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## Formal Roots: $\lambda$ -Calculus

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- Defined by Alonzo Church, a logician, in 1930s as a computational theory of recursive functions
- $\lambda$ -calculus is equivalent in computational power to Turing machines
- Recall: what's a Turing machine?  
Turing machines are abstract machines that emphasize computation as a series of state transitions driven by symbols on an input tape (which leads naturally to an imperative style of programming based on assignment)
- How is  $\lambda$ -calculus different?
  - $\lambda$ -calculus emphasizes typed expressions and functions (which naturally leads to a functional style of programming).
  - No state transitions.

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## $\lambda$ -Calculus (cont.)

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$\lambda$ -calculus is a formal system for defining recursive functions and their properties.

- Expressions are called  $\lambda$ -expressions.
- Every  $\lambda$ -expression denotes a function.
- A  $\lambda$ -expression consists of 3 kinds of terms:
  - Variables:**  $x, y, z$  etc  
 $V$  denotes arbitrary variables
  - Abstractions:**  $\lambda V.E$   
where  $V$  is some variable and  $E$  is another  $\lambda$ -term.
  - Applications:**  $(E1\ E2)$  where  $E1$  and  $E2$  are  $\lambda$ -terms. Applications are sometimes called combinations.

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## $\lambda$ -Calculus (cont.)

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Formal Syntax in BNF

```
< $\lambda$ -term> ::= <variable>
           |  $\lambda$ <variable> . < $\lambda$ -term>
           | (< $\lambda$ -term> < $\lambda$ -term>)
```

```
<variable> ::= x | y | z | ...
```

Or more compactly

```
E ::= V |  $\lambda$ V.E | (E1 E2)
V ::= x | y | z | ...
```

Where  $V$  is an arbitrary variable and  $E$  is an arbitrary  $\lambda$ -expression. We call  $\lambda V$  the **head** of the  $\lambda$ -expressions and  $E$  the **body**.

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## $\lambda$ -Calculus: Functional Forms

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A higher-order function (functional form):

- Takes functions as parameters
- Yields a function as a result

E.g.: Given

$$f(x) = x + 2, \quad g(x) = 3 * x$$

then,

$$h(x) = f(g(x)) \text{ and}$$

$$h(x) = (3 * x) + 2$$

$h(x)$  is called a **higher-order function**.

### Types of Functional Forms:

Construction form: E.g.,

$$g(x) = x * x, \quad h(x) = 2 * x, \quad i(x) = x / 2$$
$$[g, h, i] (4) = (16, 8, 2)$$

Apply-to-all form: E.g.,

$$h(x) = x * x$$
$$y(h, (2, 3, 4)) = (4, 9, 16)$$

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## $\lambda$ -Calculus Is it really Turing Complete?

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Can we represent the class of Turing computable functions?

Yes, we can represent:

- Boolean and conditional functions
- Numerical and arithmetic functions
- Data structures: ordered pairs, lists, etc.
- Recursion

But, doing so in  $\lambda$ -calculus is tedious;

- Need syntactic sugar to simplify task,
- $\lambda$ -calculus more suitable as an abstract model of a programming language rather than a practical programming language.

*Both Turing machines and  $\lambda$ -calculus are idealized, mathematical models of computation.*

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## Scheme: A Functional Programming Language

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1958: Lisp

1975: Scheme (revised over the years)

1980: Common Lisp ("CL")

1980s: Lisp Machines (e.g, Symbolics, TI Explorer, etc.)

Lisp, Scheme and CL contrasted on following pages.

Some features of Scheme:

- denotational semantics based on the  $\lambda$ -calculus.  
I.e., the meaning of programming constructs in the language is defined in terms of mathematical functions.

- lexical scoping

I.e., all free variables in a  $\lambda$ -expression are assigned values at the time that the  $\lambda$  is defined (i.e., evaluated and returned).

- arbitrary ctrl structures w/ *continuations*.
- functions as first-class values
- automatic garbage collection.



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## LISP

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- Functional language developed by John McCarthy in 1958.
- Semantics based on  $\lambda$ -Calculus
- All functions operate on lists or atomic symbols: (called “S-expressions”)
- Only five basic functions: list functions `cons`, `car`, `cdr`, `equal`, `atom` and one conditional construct: `cond`
- Uses dynamic scoping
- Useful for list-processing applications
- Programs and data have the same syntactic form: S-expressions
- Used in Artificial Intelligence

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## SCHEME

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- Developed in 1975 by G. Sussman and G. Steele
- A version of LISP
- Consistent syntax, small language
- Closer to initial semantics of LISP
- Provides basic list processing tools
- Allows functions to be first class objects
- Provides support for *lazy evaluation*
- lexical scoping of variables

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## COMMON LISP (CL)

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- Implementations of LISP did not completely adhere to semantics
- Semantics redefined to match implementations
- COMMON LISP has become the standard
- Committee-designed language (1980s) to unify LISP variants
- Many defined functions
- Simple syntax, large language