Functional Programming—
Illustrated in Scheme

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.

Scheme on CDF

```
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
```

Jumping right in

A Scheme procedure

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

or

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

A call to the procedure

```
(increment 21)
```

The Spirit of Lisp-like Languages

We shall first define a class of **symbolic expressions** in terms of ordered pairs and lists. Then we shall define five elementary **functions and predicate** end 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 expression** 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.

Pure Functional Languages

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

1. **Referential transparency:** The value of a function application is independent of the contex t 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
   ⇒ 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

Pure Functional Languages (cont.)

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
   ⇒ no iteration
   ⇒ recursion is widely used

Pure Functional Languages (cont.)

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

A Functional Program

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
```

Jumping Back In

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)
```

```
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%
```

Formal Roots: λ-Calculus

- Defined by Alonzo Church, a logician, in 1930s as a computational theory of recursive functions

- λ-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 λ-calculus different?
  - λ-calculus emphasizes typed expressions and functions (which naturally leads to a functional style of programming).
  - No state transitions.

λ-Calculus (cont.)

λ-calculus is a formal system for defining recursive functions and their properties.

- Expressions are called λ-expressions.

- Every λ-expression denotes a function.

- A λ-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 λ-term.
  Applications: $(E1\ E2)$ where $E1$ and $E2$ are λ-terms. Applications are sometimes called combinations.

λ-Calculus (cont.)

Formal Syntax in BNF

```
<λ-term> ::=  <variable>
        |  λ<variable> . <λ-term>
        |  (<λ-term> <λ-term>)


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

Or more compactly

```
E ::=  V  |  λV.E  |  (E1  E2)
V ::=  x  |  y  |  z  |  ...
```

Where V is an arbitrary variable and E is an arbitrary λ-expression. We call λV the **head** of the λ-expressions and E the **body**.

λ-Calculus: Functional Forms

A higher-order function (functional form):
- Takes functions as parameters
- Yields a function as a result
E.g.: Given
```
    f(x) = x + 2 ,      g(x) = 3 * x
```
then,
```
    h(x) = f(g(x)) 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, h(x) = 2 * x, 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)
```

λ-Calculus
Is it really Turing Complete?

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 λ-calculus is tedious;

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

Both Turing machines and λ-calculus are idealized, mathematical models of computation.

Scheme: A Functional Programming Language

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 λ-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 λ-expression are assigned values at the time that the λ is defined (i.e., evaluated and returned).

- arbitrary ctrl structures w/ *continuations*.

- functions as first-class values

- automatic garbage collection.

LISP

- Functional language developed by John McCarthy in 1958.
- Semantics based on λ-*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

SCHEME

- 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

COMMON LISP (CL)

- 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