

# An Introduction to Functional Programming

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## This course note ...

- ▶ ... is prepared for the *2007 Formosan Summer School on Logic, Language, and Computation* (held in Taipei, Taiwan),
- ▶ ... is made available from the Flolac '07 web site:

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# Course outline

**Unit 1.** Basics of functional programming.

**Unit 2.** Fold/unfold functions for data types;  
(Untyped) lambda calculus.

**Unit 3.** Parametric modules.

Each unit consists of 2 hours of lecture and 1 hour of lab/tutor.  
Examples will be given in Objective Caml (O'Caml). Useful online resources about O'Caml:

- ▶ Web site: <http://caml.inria.fr/>
- ▶ Book: *Developing Applications with Objective Caml*.  
URL: <http://caml.inria.fr/pub/docs/oreilly-book/>

# Untyped lambda calculus

- ▶ Introduced by Alonzo Church and his student Stephen Cole Kleene in the 1930s to study computable functions — even before there are computers!
- ▶ A (very simple) formal system for defining functions and their operational meanings, yet is shown to be as powerful as other systems.
- ▶ It is a basis of early programming languages (such as Lisp). Typed lambda calculi — there are many variations — are the bases of modern functional languages (such as OCaml and Haskell).

## Untyped lambda terms

The set of all (untyped) lambda terms  $T$  consists of the following terms:

- $x$  where  $x$  is a variable;
- $\lambda x. t$  where  $x$  is a variable and  $t \in T$  is a lambda term;  
(to denote function abstraction)
- $t_1 t_2$  where  $t_1, t_2 \in T$  are lambda terms; (to denote function application)
- $(t)$  where  $t \in T$  is a lambda term.

Examples:

$$x, y, z, xyz$$

$$x y z, \lambda x. \lambda y. z, (\lambda x. \lambda y. x) u v, (\lambda x. x x)(\lambda x. x x)$$

## Notational conventions

- ▶ Function application is left associative. For example:

$$(\lambda x. \lambda y. x)(\lambda x. x)z$$

means

$$((\lambda x. \lambda y. x)(\lambda x. x))z$$

- ▶ The body of a function abstraction extends to the right as far as possible. For example,

$$\lambda x. \lambda y. \lambda z. z y x$$

means

$$\lambda x. (\lambda y. (\lambda z. (z y x)))$$

In case of doubt, use parentheses to make clear the intended meaning of a term.

## Scope of variables

- ▶ An occurrence of variable  $x$  is *bound* if it appears in the body  $t$  of a function abstraction  $\lambda x . t$ .
- ▶ An occurrence of variable  $x$  is *free* if it appears in a position where it is not bound by an enclosing abstraction of  $x$ .

In the following example,

$$(\lambda x . \lambda y . (\lambda z . y) x) x$$

the outer occurrence of  $x$  is free while the inner occurrence of  $x$  is bound. The only occurrence of  $y$  is bound. The variable  $z$  does not occur in the function abstraction  $\lambda z . y$ .

## Two computational rules

**alpha renaming** Two lambda terms are equivalent if they differ only in the naming of bound variables. For example, these two terms are equivalent:

$$(\lambda x. \lambda y. x y (\lambda x. x)) y \equiv_{\alpha} (\lambda x. \lambda z. x z (\lambda x. x)) y$$

**beta reduction** A term  $(\lambda x. t_1) t_2$  — called a redex — is converted to the term  $t_1 [t_2/x]$  where all free variables  $x$  in  $t_1$  are replaced by term  $t_2$ . For example,

$$(\lambda x. \lambda z. x z (\lambda x. x)) y \rightarrow_{\beta} \lambda z. y z (\lambda x. x)$$

Use alpha renaming to avoid accidental capture of free variables during a beta reduction!



## Normal forms and reduction strategies

A lambda term is in normal form if it has no more redex. A lambda term may contain many redexes. Several strategies to select redex for beta reduction:

**Normal order reduction** always selects the leftmost, outermost redex, until no more redexes is left.

**Call-by-name reduction** always selects the leftmost, outermost redex, but never reduces inside function abstractions. (Haskell; call-by-need actually)

**Call-by-value reduction** always selects the leftmost, innermost redex, but never reduces inside function abstractions. (O'Caml)

**Church-Rosser theorem: the normal order reduction strategy will always lead to *the* normal form if there is one.**

## Non-terminating reduction sequences

There are lambda terms that have no normal form. An example:

$$(\lambda x. x x)(\lambda x. x x) \rightarrow_{\beta} (\lambda x. x x)(\lambda x. x x) \rightarrow_{\beta} \dots$$

Let  $\omega$  denote the lambda term  $((\lambda x. x x)(\lambda x. x x))$ , and  $Q$  denote the lambda term  $(\lambda x. \lambda y. x) \omega$ . Then,

### Normal order reduction

$$Q \rightarrow_{\beta} \lambda y. \omega \rightarrow_{\beta} \lambda y. \omega \rightarrow_{\beta} \dots$$

### Call-by-name reduction

$$Q \rightarrow_{\beta} \lambda y. \omega \not\rightarrow$$

### Call-by-value reduction

$$Q \rightarrow_{\beta} Q \rightarrow_{\beta} Q \rightarrow_{\beta} \dots$$

## Church booleans

$$\text{true} := \lambda t. \lambda f. t$$

$$\text{false} := \lambda t. \lambda f. f$$

$$\text{if} := \lambda b. \lambda p. \lambda q. b p q$$

Example:

$$\begin{aligned} \text{if true } P Q &= (\lambda b. \lambda p. \lambda q. b p q) \text{ true } P Q \\ &\rightarrow \text{true } P Q \\ &= (\lambda t. \lambda f. t) P Q \\ &\rightarrow P \end{aligned}$$

More definitions:

$$\text{and} := \lambda p. \lambda q. \text{if } p q \text{ false}$$

$$\text{or} := \lambda p. \lambda q. \text{if } p \text{ true } q$$

## Church numerals

$$0 := \lambda f . \lambda x . x$$

$$1 := \lambda f . \lambda x . f x$$

$$2 := \lambda f . \lambda x . f (f x)$$

$$n := \lambda f . \lambda x . f^{(n)} x$$

$$\text{succ} := \lambda x . \lambda f . \lambda n . f (x f n)$$

$$\text{plus} := \lambda x . \lambda y . \lambda f . \lambda n . x f (y f n)$$

$$\text{times} := \lambda x . \lambda y . x (\text{plus } y \ 0)$$

$$\text{iszero} := \lambda n . n (\lambda x . \text{false}) \text{true}$$

Example:

$$\begin{aligned} \text{succ } 2 &= (\lambda x . \lambda f . \lambda n . f (x f n)) \ 2 \\ &\rightarrow \lambda f . \lambda n . f (2 f n) \\ &= \lambda f . \lambda n . f ((\lambda f . \lambda n . f (f n)) f n) \\ &\rightarrow \lambda f . \lambda n . f (f (f n)) = 3 \end{aligned}$$

## Recursion via fixed-point

$$Y := \lambda f. (\lambda x. f (x x))(\lambda x. f (x x))$$

$Y$  is a fixed-point computing function. For any lambda term  $F$ ,

$$\begin{aligned} Y F &= (\lambda f. (\lambda x. f (x x))(\lambda x. f (x x))) F \\ &\rightarrow (\lambda x. F (x x))(\lambda x. F (x x)) \\ &\rightarrow F ((\lambda x. F (x x))(\lambda x. F (x x))) \\ &= F (Y F) \end{aligned}$$

That is,  $(Y F)$  is a fixed-point of  $F$ .

## The factorial function, once again

Let

$$F := \lambda f . \lambda n . \text{if } (\text{iszero } n) \ 1 \ (\text{times } n \ (f \ (\text{pred } n)))$$

Then

$$\begin{aligned} Y F 3 &\rightarrow F (Y F) 3 \\ &= \text{if } (\text{iszero } 3) \ 1 \ (\text{times } 3 \ ((Y F) (\text{pred } 3))) \\ &\rightarrow \text{times } 3 \ (Y F 2) \\ &\rightarrow \text{times } 3 \ (F (Y F) 2) \\ &\rightarrow \text{times } 3 \ (\text{times } 2 \ (Y F 1)) \\ &\rightarrow \text{times } 3 \ (\text{times } 2 \ (F (Y F) 1)) \\ &\rightarrow \text{times } 3 \ (\text{times } 2 \ (\text{times } 1 \ (Y F 0))) \\ &\rightarrow \text{times } 3 \ (\text{times } 2 \ (\text{times } 1 \ (F (Y F) 0))) \\ &\rightarrow \text{times } 3 \ (\text{times } 2 \ (\text{times } 1 \ 1)) \\ &\rightarrow 6 \end{aligned}$$

Is that all?

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The definition of pred turns out to be not so easy!