Functional Programming

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This course note ...

- ... is prepared for the 2010 Formosan Summer School on Logic, Language, and Computation (FLOLAC) held in Taipei, Taiwan,
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Course outline

Unit 1. Basics of functional programming.

Unit 2. Fold/unfold functions; 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/

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Functions, I

let
$$x = 1$$

let $y = x + 1$
let succ $n = n + 1$
let $z = succ y$

Functions, I

Functions, II

let sum x y = x + y let five = sum 2 3

```
let plus3 = sum 3
let seven = plus3 4
```

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Functions, II

Functions, II

let sum x y = x + y let five = sum 2.3▶ val sum : int -> int -> int = <fun> val five : int = 5let plus3 = sum 3let seven = plus3 4 val plus3 : int -> int = <fun> val seven : int = 7

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Anonymous functions, I

```
let succ = fun n \rightarrow n + 1
let one = succ 0
let two = (fun n \rightarrow n + 1) one
```

Anonymous functions, I

Anonymous functions, II

let sum = fun x
$$\rightarrow$$
 fun y \rightarrow x + y
let plus3 = sum 3

Anonymous functions, II

let sum = fun x \rightarrow fun y \rightarrow x + y let plus3 = sum 3

- val sum : int -> int -> int = <fun>
 val plus3 : int -> int = <fun>
- let twice = fun f -> fun x -> f (f x)
 let plus6 = twice plus3
 let seven = plus6 one

Anonymous functions, II

let sum = fun x
$$\rightarrow$$
 fun y \rightarrow x + y
let plus3 = sum 3

- val sum : int -> int -> int = <fun>
 val plus3 : int -> int = <fun>
- let twice = fun f -> fun x -> f (f x)
 let plus6 = twice plus3
 let seven = plus6 one
 - val twice : ('a -> 'a) -> 'a -> 'a = <fun>
 val plus6 : int -> int = <fun>
 val seven : int = 7

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Functions as arguments and as results, I

let compose f g = fun x
$$\rightarrow$$
 f (g x)

let times 2 n = n * 2

- let this = compose plus3 times2 1
- let that = compose times2 plus3 1

Functions as arguments and as results, I

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Functions as arguments and as results, II

Functions as arguments and as results, II

Notations in O'Caml, I

Function application is just juxtaposition, and is left associative. These two definitions are the same:

- > let this = compose plus3 times2 1
- > let this = ((compose plus3) times2) 1

Notations in O'Caml, II

Function abstraction is right associative. These two definitions are the same:

let sum = fun x
$$\rightarrow$$
 fun y \rightarrow x + y

val sum : int -> int -> int = <fun>

▶ let sum = fun x -> (fun y -> x + y)

val sum : int -> (int -> int) = <fun>

Evaluation in O'Caml

- Expressions are evaluated before they are passed as arguments to the function body.
- The function body is evaluated only when all the arguments are evaluated.
- Functions can be partially applied.

Binding in O'Caml, I

Lexical binding: Expressions are evaluated and bound to the corresponding identifiers in the order they appear in the program text.

Binding in O'Caml, I

- Lexical binding: Expressions are evaluated and bound to the corresponding identifiers in the order they appear in the program text.
- Nested binding: Outer bindings are shadowed by inner bindings.

let
$$x = 100$$

let f y = let x = x + y in x
let x = 10
let z = f x

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Binding in O'Caml, II

 Simultaneous binding: Several bindings occur at the same time under the same environment.

let
$$x = z$$

and $z = x$

Binding in O'Caml, II

 Simultaneous binding: Several bindings occur at the same time under the same environment.

and z = x

 Recursive binding: Identifiers can be referred to when they are being defined.

Recursive functions: Example I

- Expressiveness: Euclid's algorithm for greatest common divisor (gcd), assuming integers m, n > 0:
 - let rec gcd m n =
 if m mod n = 0
 then n
 else gcd n (m mod n)
 let u = gcd 57 38
 let v = gcd 38 59

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Recursive functions: Example II

The danger of non-terminating computation: let rec loop x = loop x let oops = loop 0

Built-in data types in O'Caml, I

```
type int
          0. -1. . . .
type char
          'a', '\'', ...
type string
          "\"O'Caml\" is a fine
          language.n'', ...
type float
          3.14159, 0.314159e1, ...
```

Built-in data types in O'Caml, II

type unit = ()
type bool = false | true
type 'a list = [] | :: of 'a * 'a list
 [], true::false::[], [1; 2; 3], ...
type 'a option = None | Some of 'a
 None, Some 17, Some [None; Some
 true], ...

```
Built-in type operators in O'Caml, I
```

```
Cartesian product
        type int_pair = int * int
        let rec gcd (m, n) =
              if m \mod n = 0
                 then n else gcd (n, m mod n)
        val gcd : int * int -> int = <fun>
```

Built-in type operators in O'Caml, II

Function space

type int2int2int = int -> int -> int

let rec gcd m n =
 if m mod n = 0
 then n else gcd n (m mod n)

val gcd : int -> int -> int = <fun>

Expressions, values, and types, I

Well-typed expressions:
0, (1 + 2), (sum 2 3), (2, true), (fun x -> fun y -> x + y)
Ill-typed expressions:

Expressions, values, and types, II

All O'Caml values have types:

val sum : int -> int -> int = <fun>
val five : int = 5

- > Some values are polymorphic: val twice : ('a -> 'a) -> 'a -> 'a = <fun> val empty_list : 'a list = []
- Expressions are statically checked to ensure they always evaluate to values.

O'Caml is strict, I

- O'Caml insists on evaluating the arguments in a function application though the arguments may not be required for the computation in the function body. O'Caml is called a *strict* language.
- Some functional language, e.g., Haskell, will evaluate the function arguments only when they are demanded by the computation in the function body. These languages are *non-strict*.

O'Caml is strict, II

What is wrong in this picture (in O'Caml): let oracle () = ...

let choice this that = if oracle () then this else that

O'Caml is strict, II

What is wrong in this picture (in O'Caml): let oracle () = ...

let choice this that = if oracle () then this else that let rec loop x = loop x

let oops = choice (loop 0) 0

Functions to the rescue!

let new_choice this that = if oracle () then this () else that ()

let was = choice (loop 0) 0
let now = new_choice (fun () -> loop 0)
 (fun () -> 0)
What about variables?

We can bind values to identifiers; once an identifier is bound, its value never changes. Of course, bindings can be nested hence, for the same identifier, the inner binding may shadow outer binding.

What about variables?

- We can bind values to identifiers; once an identifier is bound, its value never changes. Of course, bindings can be nested hence, for the same identifier, the inner binding may shadow outer binding.
- Can one implement a counter using only functions?

What about variables?

- We can bind values to identifiers; once an identifier is bound, its value never changes. Of course, bindings can be nested hence, for the same identifier, the inner binding may shadow outer binding.
- Can one implement a counter using only functions?
- We can implement *many* counters using only functions!

Counters!

We can implement *many* counters using only functions!

Counters!

- We can implement *many* counters using only functions!
- > let init value = fun () -> value let read counter = counter () let step counter more = fun () -> read counter + more

val init : 'a -> unit -> 'a = <fun>
val read : (unit -> 'a) -> 'a = <fun>
val step : (unit -> int) -> int ->
unit -> int = <fun>

Counters via functions, I

- let init value = fun () -> value
- let read counter = counter ()
- let step counter more =
 fun () -> read counter + more

```
let mem = init 0
let x = step mem 1
let y = step mem 2
let z = step x 100
let x_y_z = (read x, read y, read z)
```

Function, evaluation, and binding Data types

Counters via functions, II

val mem : unit -> int = <fun>
val x : unit -> int = <fun>
val y : unit -> int = <fun>
val z : unit -> int = <fun>
val z : unit -> int = <fun>
val x_y_z : int * int * int = (1, 2, 101)

Programming by pattern-matching, I

type 'a table = (string * 'a) list

let rec lookup key table = match table with [] -> None | (name, value) :: rest -> if key = name then Some value else lookup key rest

Programming by pattern-matching, II

let this = lookup "guava" fruits
let that = lookup "mango" fruits

```
val lookup : 'a -> ('a * 'b) list -> 'b option = <fun>
val fruits : (string * color) list =
                          [("banana", Yellow); ("guava", Green)]
val this : color option = Some Green
val that : color option = None
```

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Function, evaluation, and binding Data types

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List reversal: Example I

> let rec reverse list = match list with [] -> [] | head :: tail -> (reverse tail) @ [head]

List reversal: Example II

- Both have type:
 - val reverse : 'a list -> 'a list = <fun>
- Which one is better?

Functions over lists, I

```
let rec filter p list =
    match list with
           [] -> []
        | head :: tail \rightarrow
          if p head then head :: (filter p tail)
                     else filter p tail
let rec append front rear =
    match front with
           [] -> rear
        | head :: tail -> head :: (append tail rear)
```

Functions over lists, II

let this = filter (fun n -> n mod 2 = 0) [1; 2; 3] let that = append [1; 2; 3] [100; 101; 102]

val filter : ('a -> bool) -> 'a list -> 'a list = <fun>
val append : 'a list -> 'a list -> 'a list = <fun>
val this : int list = [2]
val that : int list = [1; 2; 3; 100; 101; 102]

User-defined type constructors, I

- tree is a type constructor: it construct a type α tree whenever given a type α.
- Leaf and Node are the two value constructors for type *α tree*.

Leaf: 'a tree Node: 'a * 'a tree * 'a tree -> 'a tree

User-defined type constructors, II

- In O'Caml, type constructors start with lower-case letters; value constructors start with upper-case letters.
- In O'Caml, type constructors and value constructors are unary. Type construction uses postfix notation; value construction, prefix.

```
Some (Node (1, Node (0, Leaf, Leaf),
Node (2, Leaf, Leaf)))
```

has type

int tree option

Functions over trees

```
let rec swap tree =
    match tree with
          Leaf -> Leaf
        | Node (here, left, right) ->
          Node (here, swap right, swap left)
let rec insert key tree =
    match tree with
          Leaf -> Node (key, Leaf, Leaf)
        | Node (here, left, right) ->
          if key < here
             then Node (here, insert key left, right)
             else Node (here, left, insert key right)
val swap : 'a tree -> 'a tree = <fun>
val insert : 'a -> 'a tree -> 'a tree = <fun>
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```

Functions over trees, continued

```
let rec build f s =
   match f s with
        None -> Leaf
        Some (a, left, right) ->
        Node (a, build f left, build f right)
let range (low, high) =
   if low > high
      then None
   else let mid = (low + high) / 2 in
        Some (mid, (low, mid - 1), (mid + 1, high))
```

let tree1to7 = build range (1, 7)

Functions over lists, re-visited

```
let rec filter p list =
    match list with
           [] -> []
         | head :: tail \rightarrow
          if p head then head :: (filter p tail)
                     else filter p tail
let rec append front rear =
    match front with
           [] -> rear
         | head :: tail -> head :: (append tail rear)
```

- Both functions work on lists in a bottom-up manner.
- What is the base case, and what is the inductive step?

Fold function for lists

```
let rec fold (base, step) list =
    match list with
           [] -> base
         | hd :: tl -> step (hd, fold (base, step) tl)
let filter p list =
    let step (hd, acc) = if p hd then (hd :: acc)
                                   else acc
 in
    fold ([], step) list
let append front rear =
    fold (rear, fun (hd, acc) -> hd :: acc) front
val fold : 'a * ('b * 'a -> 'a) -> 'b list -> 'a = <fun>
val filter : ('a -> bool) -> 'a list -> 'a list = \langle fur \rangle
val append : 'a list -> 'a list -> 'a list = <fun>
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```

Fold function for trees

```
let rec swap tree =
    match tree with
          Leaf -> Leaf
        | Node (here, left, right) ->
          Node (here, swap right, swap left)
let rec fold (base, step) tree =
    match tree with
          Leaf \rightarrow base
        | Node (here, left, right) ->
          step (here, fold (base, step) left,
                       fold (base, step) right)
let swap' tree = fold (Leaf,
```

fun (here,left,right) -> Node (here,right,left)) tree

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What is a tree, anyway?

- A tree of type α tree is a value that can be folded.
- Whenever given a base value of type β, and an inductive function of type α × β × β → β, a tree can be folded into a value of type β.

A new data type for trees

A new swap function

```
let swap tree =
    let f t = match t with Leaf -> Rec Leaf
                          | Node (here, left, right) ->
                       Rec (Node (here, right, left))
 in fold f tree
let tree123 = Rec (Node (2,
                    Rec (Node (1, Rec Leaf, Rec Leaf)),
                    Rec (Node (3, Rec Leaf, Rec Leaf))))
let tree321 = swap tree123
val swap : 'a tree -> 'a tree = <fun>
val tree 123 : int tree =
 Rec (Node (2, Rec (Node (1, Rec Leaf, Rec Leaf)),
               Rec (Node (3, Rec Leaf, Rec Leaf))))
val tree321 : int tree =
 Rec (Node (2, Rec (Node (3, Rec Leaf, Rec Leaf)),
               Rec (Node (1, Rec Leaf, Rec (Deaf)))
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```

Look at a tree this way!

- Type constructor (α, β) t defines (the only) two forms of a tree node.
- Type constructor α tree defines a tree as a recursive structure via type constructor (α, β) t. The recursion occurs at the second type argument to t.
- A function of type (α, β) t → β comprises both the base case and the inductive step necessary for folding a value of type α tree to a value of type β.

A new data type for trees, continued

We saw this before!

```
let rec build f s =
    match f s with
          None -> Leaf
        | Some (a, left, right) ->
          Node (a, build f left, build f right)
let range (low, high) =
    if low > high
       then None
       else let mid = (low + high) / 2 in
            Some (mid, (low, mid - 1), (mid + 1, high))
```

let tree1to7 = build range (1, 7)

Rewrite it using unfold

```
let rec unfold g seed =
    match g seed with
          Leaf -> Rec Leaf
        | Node (here, left, right) ->
     Rec (Node (here, unfold g left,
                      unfold g right))
let range (low, high) =
    if low > high
       then Leaf
       else let mid = (low + high) / 2 in
            Node (mid, (low, mid - 1), (mid + 1, high))
```

```
let balanced = unfold range
let tree1to7 = balanced (1, 7)
```

Look at a tree the other way!

- Type constructor (α, β) t defines (the only) two forms of a tree node.
- Type constructor α tree defines a tree as a recursive structure via type constructor (α, β) t. The recursion occurs at the second type argument to t.
- A function of type β → (α, β) t comprises the co-inductive step necessary for unfolding a value of type β to a value of type α tree.

Fold and unfold for trees

```
let rec fold f tree =
    match tree with
            Rec Leaf -> f Leaf
          | Rec (Node (here, left, right)) ->
              f (Node (here, fold f left, fold f right))
let rec unfold g seed =
    match g seed with
            Leaf -> Rec Leaf
          | Node (here, left, right) ->
      Rec (Node (here, unfold g left, unfold g right))
val fold : (('a, 'b) t \rightarrow 'b) \rightarrow 'a tree \rightarrow 'b = \langle fun \rangle
val unfold : ('a \rightarrow ('b, 'a) t) \rightarrow 'a \rightarrow 'b tree = <fun>
```

Functions fold and unfold look strangely similar to each other! $= -2 \circ 0 \circ 0$

Fold and unfold for trees, the third round (I)

type 'a tree = Rec of ('a, 'a tree) t

Fold and unfold for trees, the third round (II)

type ('a, 'b) t = Leaf| Node of 'a * 'b * 'b type 'a tree = Rec of ('a, 'a tree) t let id x = xlet rec fold f tree = f (map (id, fold f) (down tree)) let rec unfold g seed = up (map (id, unfold g) (g seed)) val id : 'a -> 'a = <fun> val fold : $(('a, 'b) t \rightarrow 'b) \rightarrow 'a tree \rightarrow 'b = \langle fun \rangle$ val unfold : ('a \rightarrow ('b, 'a) t) \rightarrow 'a \rightarrow 'b tree = <fun>

Fold and unfold for trees — ever more functional!

Fold and unfold are functions that each takes in a (basis) function as the argument and return a (tree) function as the result.

```
let () f g x = f (g x)
```

let rec fold f tree = (f \$ map (id, fold f) \$ down) tree let rec unfold g seed = (up \$ map (id, unfold g) \$ g) seed

let this = fold up
let that = unfold down

```
val ($): ('a -> 'b) -> ('c -> 'a) -> 'c -> 'b = <fun>
val fold : (('a, 'b) t -> 'b) -> 'a tree -> 'b = <fun>
val unfold : ('a -> ('b, 'a) t) -> 'a -> 'b tree = <fun>
val this : 'a tree -> 'a tree = <fun>
val that : 'a tree -> 'a tree = <fun>
```

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Functional diagram for fold

In the diagram, functions are arrows, and types are objects.



let rec fold f tree = (f \$ map (id, fold f) \$ down) tree

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Functional diagram for unfold

In the diagram, functions are arrows, and types are objects.



let rec unfold g seed = (up \$ map (id, unfold g) \$ g) seed

Let's not forget lists!

type 'a list = Rec of ('a, 'a list) t

let rec fold f list = (f \$ map (id, fold f) \$ down) list let rec unfold g seed = (up \$ map (id, unfold g) \$ g) seed



Modules, I

- A module, also called *structure*, packs together related definitions (types, values, and even modules).
- The module name acts as a "name space" to avoid name conflicts.
Modules, II

```
module MyStack =
struct
  type 'a t = 'a list
  let empty = []
  let push elm stack = elm :: stack
  let pop stack =
      match stack with
             [] -> None
          | head :: tail -> Some (head, tail)
end
```

let whatever = MyStack.push 1_{1} , $[]_{p}$, $z \to z \to z_{p}$

Module interfaces, I

- A module interface, also called *signature*, specifies which components of a structure are accessible from the outside, and with which type.
- It acts as a contract between the user and the implementer of a module. Interface checking is always enforced in O'Caml.

Module interfaces, II

```
module type STACK =
sig
type 'a t
val empty: 'a t
val push: 'a -> 'a t -> 'a t
val pop: 'a t -> ('a * 'a t) option
end
```

```
module S: STACK = MyStack
let whatever = S.push 1 S.empty
```

Parametric modules, I

- A parametric module, also called *functor*, is a structure parameterized by other structures. It accepts modules as arguments and returns a module as the result.
- Type sharing and structure sharing constraints can be used to relate the arguments and the result.

Parametric modules, II

```
module type QUEUE = STACK
module type S2Q = functor (S: STACK) -> QUEUE
module MakeQueue: S2Q = functor (S: STACK) ->
struct
 type 'a t = 'a S.t * 'a S.t
 let empty = (S.empty, S.empty)
 let push elm (front, rear) = (front, S.push elm rear)
 let pop (front, rear) =
     match S.pop front with
           Some (e, s) \rightarrow Some (e, (s, rear))
         | None -> ...
```

end

Tree folding



List folding



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A fold for all seasons?

- Wanted: A way to describe the derivation of a unary type constructor by recursing over a binary type constructor, and to define the accompanying fold function at the same time.
- This is exactly what a parametric module can do!
- Input: a module with a binary type constructor and its map function.
- Output: a module with a unary type constructor, its map function, and its fold and unfold functions.

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Module interfaces FUN and FIX

```
module type FUN =
sig
 type ('a, 'u) t
 val map: ('a -> 'b) * ('u -> 'v) -> ('a, 'u) t
                                   -> ('b. 'v) t
end
module type FIX =
sig
 module Base: FUN
 type 'a t = Rec of ('a, 'a t) Base.t
 val down: 'a t -> ('a, 'a t) Base.t
 val up: ('a, 'a t) Base.t -> 'a t
 val map: ('a -> 'b) -> 'a t -> 'b t
 val fold: (('a, 'x) Base.t -> 'x) -> 'a t -> 'x
end
```

Mu, the fixed-pointing module

```
module Mu: MU = functor (B: FUN) ->
struct
module Base = B
type 'a t = Rec of ('a, 'a t) Base.t
let down (Rec t) = t
let up t = Rec t
let rec fold f (Rec t) = f (Base.map (id, fold f) t)
let rec map f (Rec t) = Rec (Base.map (f, map f) t)
```

end

Module Tree

```
module T =
struct
 type ('a, 'b) t = Leaf
                  | Node of 'a * 'b * 'b
 let map (f, g) t =
      match t with Leaf -> Leaf
                 | Node ( h, l, r) ->
                   Node (f h, g l, g r)
end
```

module Tree = Mu(T)

Module List

```
module L =
struct
 type ('a, 'b) t = Null
                  | Cons of 'a * 'b
  let map (f, g) t =
      match t with Null -> Null
                 | Cons ( hd, tl) ->
                   Cons (f hd, g tl)
end
```

module List = Mu(L)

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Basics of functional programming Fold/unfold functions; Parametric modules

Fold/unfold functions for data types Parametric Modules

Finale: modules as lego blocks





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