



# Programming Languages

## Lecture 14 – Functional Languages



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“Whatever the next 700 languages turn out to be, they will surely be variants of lambda calculus.”

Landin, Peter J. The next 700 programming languages.  
*Communications of the ACM*, 9(3):157–166, March 1966.

# Imperative Programming Languages

- The design of the **imperative languages** is based directly on the *von Neumann architecture*
  - Efficiency is the primary concern
  - Needs to understand the machine architecture
  - Variables, conditional branching, iteration, procedures
  - Side-effects, state-based, assignment-oriented
- Imperative Languages
  - Ex. Fortran, Algol, Pascal, Ada, C, C++, Java



John von Neumann (1903-1957)  
Creator of EDVAC

# Historical Origins of Programming Languages

- The imperative and functional models
  - undertaken by Alan Turing, Alonzo Church, Stephen Kleene, Emil Post, etc. ~1930s
  - different formalizations of the notion of an algorithm, or *effective procedure*, based on automata, symbolic manipulation, recursive function definitions, and combinatorics



A. Turing



A. Church



S. Kleene



E. Post

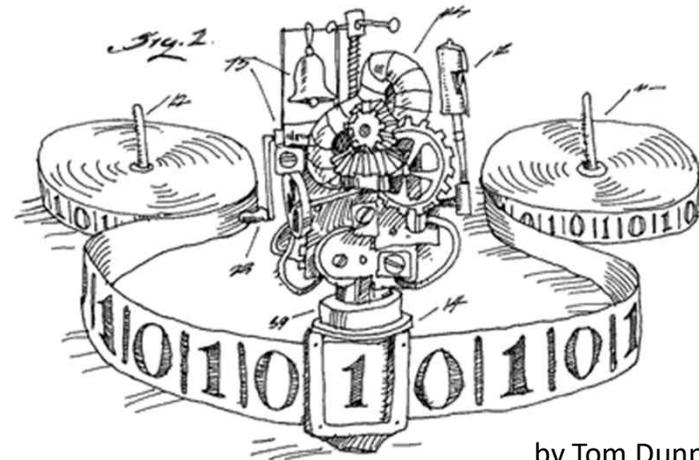
## A conjecture known as *Church-Turing thesis*

- “Any intuitively appealing computation model would be equally powerful as well”
- Turing Machine
  - Formal computation model for **imperative** programming languages
- Lambda Calculus (by Church)
  - Formal computation model for **functional** programming languages



# Turing Machine

- Turing's model of computing
  - Pushdown automaton + an unbounded storage “tape”
  - Turing machine computes in an imperative way
    - By changing the values in cells of its tape – like variables just as a high level imperative program computes by changing the values of variables



by Tom Dunne



# Lambda Calculus

- Church's model of computing
  - Notion of parameterized expressions
    - With each parameter introduced by an occurrence of the letter  $\lambda$  - hence the notation's name.
  - $\lambda$ -calculus was the inspiration for functional programming
  - Key idea: do everything by composing functions
    - No mutable state
    - No side effects
  - Functional languages such as Lisp, Scheme, FP, ML, Miranda, and Haskell are attempts to realize Church's  $\lambda$ -calculus in practical form as a programming language



# Functional Programming Concepts

- Necessary features, many of which are missing in some imperative languages
  - 1st class and high-order functions
  - serious polymorphism
  - powerful list facilities
  - structured function returns
  - fully general aggregates
  - garbage collection

# Recursion in Functional Languages

- How get anything done in a functional language?
  - Recursion (especially tail recursion) takes the place of iteration
  - In general, you can get the effect of a series of assignments

```
x := 0    ...  
x := expr1    ...  
x := expr2    ...
```

from  $f_3(f_2(f_1(0)))$ , where each  $f$  expects the value of  $x$  as an argument,  $f_1$  returns  $\text{expr}_1$ , and  $f_2$  returns  $\text{expr}_2$

## Recursion in FL (cont'd)

- Recursion even does a nifty job of replacing a looping

```
x := 0; i := 1; j := 100;
while i < j do
    x := x + i*j;
    i := i + 1;
    j := j - 1
end while
return x
```

becomes  $f(0, 1, 100)$  , where

```
f(x, i, j) == if i < j then
                f(x+i*j, i+1, j-1)
            else x
```



## Fundamentals of FPL

- The objective of the design of a FPL is to mimic mathematical functions to the greatest extent possible
- The basic process of computation is fundamentally different in a FPL than in an imperative language
  - In an imperative language, operations are done and the results are stored in variables for later use
  - Management of variables is a constant concern and source of complexity for imperative programming
- In an FPL, variables are not necessary, as is the case in mathematics



## Mathematical Functions

- A mathematical function is a *mapping* of members of one set, called the *domain set*, to another set, called the *range set*
- A *lambda expression* specifies the parameter(s) and the mapping of a function in the following form

$$\lambda x. x * x * x$$

for the function  $\text{cube}(x) = x * x * x$



## Lambda calculus

- Humans can give meaning to those symbols in a way that corresponds to computations.
- We write " $\lambda n. \dots$ " as a shorthand for  
“The function that, for each  $n$ , yields...”
- **factorial** =  $\lambda n. \text{if } n=0 \text{ then } 1 \text{ else } n * \text{factorial}(n-1)$
- The *lambda-calculus* (or  $\lambda$ -calculus) embodies this kind of function definition and application in the purest possible form
- **Definition of Calculus:**  
**Calculus** is just a bunch of rules for manipulating symbols.

# Lambda calculus

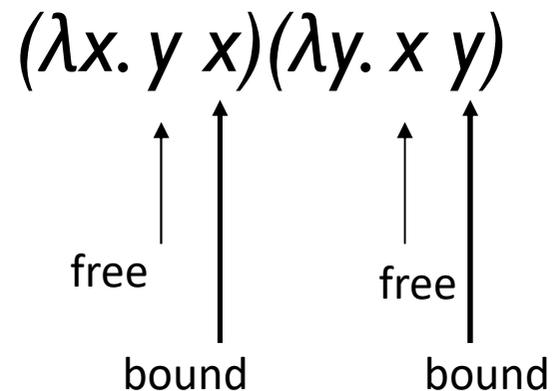
- Syntax:

- $f(x) = x + 3$ :  $\lambda x. x+3$
- $f(3)$   $(\lambda x. x+3) 3$
- $f(x) = x^2$   $\lambda x. x*x$

- The only keywords used in the language are  $\lambda$  and dot
- An expression can be surrounded with parenthesis for clarity
- In pure lambda calculus, EVERY function takes one (and only one) argument

## Scope in Lambda calculus

- In  $\lambda$  calculus all names are local to definitions
- $\lambda x.t$  : The scope of  $x$  is the term  $t$
- An occurrence of the variable  $x$  is said to be *bound* when it occurs in the body  $t$  of an abstraction  $\lambda x.t$



## Lambda calculus

- So how to do functions with multiple arguments?
  - $f(x,y) = x-y$                        $\lambda x. \lambda y. x-y$ 
    - This is really a function of a function
    - $(\lambda x. \lambda y. x-y) 7 2$       yields  $f(7,2) = 7-2 = 5$
    - $(\lambda x. \lambda y. x-y) 7$         yields  $f(7,y) = 7-y$
- Note that when supplying only one parameter, we end up with a function
  - Where the other parameter is supplied
- This is called *currying*
  - A function can return a value *OR* a function



## Lambda Expressions

- Lambda expressions describe nameless functions
- Lambda expressions are applied to parameter(s) by placing the parameter(s) after the expression

e.g.,  $(\lambda (x) \ x * x * x) (2)$

which evaluates to 8



# Functions

- No side effects (this is how we would like our Scheme functions to behave also)
  - *Referential Transparency* - In an FPL, the evaluation of a function always produces the same result given the same parameters
- Can be composed
  - The result of one function can be the input to another function.  $(+ 3 (* 4 5))$



## Function Composition

- A functional form that takes two functions as parameters and yields a function whose value is the first actual parameter function applied to the application of the second

Form:  $h \equiv f \circ g$

which means  $h(x) \equiv f(g(x))$

For  $f(x) \equiv x + 2$  and  $g(x) \equiv 3 * x$ ,

$h \equiv f \circ g$  **yields**  $(3 * x) + 2$



## Apply-to-all

- A functional form that takes a single function as a parameter and yields a list of values obtained by applying the given function to each element of a list of parameters

Form:  $\alpha$

For  $h(x) \equiv x * x$

$\alpha(h, (2, 3, 4))$  yields  $(4, 9, 16)$



## Data Types and Structures

- *Data object types*: originally only atoms and lists
- *List form*: parenthesized collections of sublists and/or atoms  
e.g., (A B (C D) E)
- Lists are stored internally as single-linked lists
- Originally, LISP was a typeless language

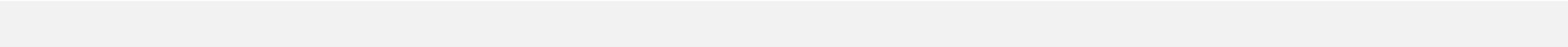


## List Interpretation

- Lambda notation is used to specify functions and function definitions. Function applications and data have the same form.
- e.g., If the list  $(A\ B\ C)$  is interpreted as data. It is a simple list of three atoms,  $A$ ,  $B$ , and  $C$
- If it is interpreted as a function application, it means that the function named  $A$  is applied to the two parameters,  $B$  and  $C$



## Evaluation

- Parameters are evaluated, in no particular order
  - The values of the parameters are substituted into the function body
  - The function body is evaluated
  - The value of the last expression in the body is the value of the function
- 



# LISP

- Lisp is an old language with many variants
- Lisp is alive and well today
  - Most modern versions are based on Common Lisp
- Variants of LISP
  - Pure Lisp
  - Interlisp, MacLisp, Emacs Lisp
  - Common Lisp
  - Scheme



# Functional Programming Concepts

- Pure Lisp is purely functional
  - All other Lisps have imperative features
- All early Lisps dynamically scoped
  - Not clear whether this was deliberate or if it happened by accident
- Scheme and Common Lisp statically scoped
  - Common Lisp provides dynamic scope as an option for explicitly-declared special functions
  - Common Lisp is now THE standard Lisp