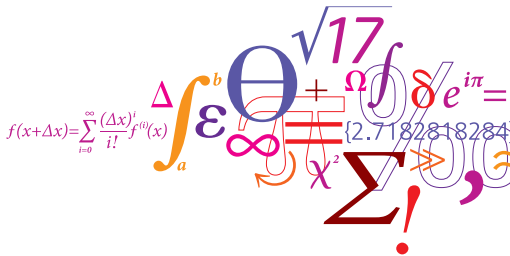


02157 Functional Programming

Lecture 1: Introduction and Getting Started

Michael R. Hansen



DTU Informatics

Department of Informatics and Mathematical Modelling

WELCOME to 02157 Functional Programming

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Teaching assistant: Phan Anh Dung, PhD Student.
Søren Olofsson, master's student
Both at DTU Informatics

Homepage: www.imm.dtu.dk/courses/02157

- Introduction to functional programming and F#
(341.23 — here)
- about 9:15 – lecture notes can be bought here.
- Make your first programs in the databar
(341 Rooms: 015 and 019 — E-databar)
- Introduction to lists in F#
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- Computations with polynomials in F#
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By noon you have solved a non-trivial problem using F#

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by Michael R. Hansen and Hans Rischel.

Can be bought at the reception of DTU Informatics. Price 100 kr.

Published by Cambridge University Press the coming winter.

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- Imperative models of computations are expressed in terms of states and sequences of state-changing operations

Example:

```
i := 0;  
s := 0;  
while i < length(A)  
  do s := s+A[i];  
    i := i+1  
  od
```

An imperative model describes *how* a solution is obtained

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An imperative model describes *how* a solution is obtained

- An **object** is characterized by a **state** and an **interface** specifying a collection of **state-changing operations**.
- **Object-oriented models of computations** are expressed in terms of a collection of objects which exchange messages by using interface operations.

Object-oriented models add structure to imperative models

An object-oriented model describes *how* a solution is obtained

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Object-oriented models add structure to imperative models

An object-oriented model describes *how* a solution is obtained

In declarative models focus is on *what* a solution is.

- Logical programming (02156 Logical Systems and Logical Programming)
 - Programs are (typically) expressed in a fragment of first-order logic. The formulas have a standard meaning, as well as a *procedural interpretation based on logical inferences*.
- Functional programming
 - A program is expressed as a mathematical function

$$f : A \rightarrow B$$

and function applications guide computations.

Some advantages

- fast prototyping based on abstract concepts
- more advanced applications are within reach
- Supplement modelling and problem solving techniques
- Execute in parallel on multi-core platforms

F# is as efficient as C#

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Some functional programming background

In **functional programming**, the model of computation is the application of functions to arguments. **no side-effects**

- Introduction of **λ -calculus** around 1930 by Church and Kleene when investigating function definition, function application, recursion and computable functions. For example, $f(x) = x + 2$ is represented by $\lambda x.x + 2$.
- Introduction of the type-less functional-like programming language LISP was developed by McCarthy in the late 1950s.
- Introduction of the "variable-free" programming language FP (Backus 1977), by providing a rich collection of functionals (combining forms for functions).
- Introduction of functional languages with a strong type system like ML (by Milner) and Miranda (by Turner) in the 1970s.

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- **Standard Meta Language** (SML) was originally designed for theorem proving
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- SML-like systems (SML, OCAML, F#, ...) have now applications far away from its origins
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- A model-based programming approach using a functional language with a strong type system.
- Program correctness, including structural induction and well-founded induction

Fun with a variety of applications, such as

- a library for piecewise linear curves – with applications
- a Sudoku solver
- an interpreter for a simple programming language
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Teach **abstraction** (not a concrete programming language)

- Modelling
- Design
- Programming

Why?

More complex problems can be solved in an succinct, elegant and understandable manner

How?

Solving a broad class of problems showing the applicability of the theory, concepts, techniques and tools.

Functional programming techniques once mastered are useful for the design of programs in other programming paradigms as well.

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- Structured values like lists, trees, . . .
- Strong and flexible type discipline, including
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assignments, loops, arrays, objects, Input/Output, etc.

Programming as a modelling discipline

- High-level programming, declarative programming, executable
declarative specifications B, Z, VDM, RAISE
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Prerequisites for 02157: Programming in an imperative/object-oriented language, discrete mathematics, algorithms and data structure, as obtained, for example, from the bachelor programme in Software Technology.

Successor course of 02157:

02257 Applied functional programming
3-weeks period January

An extension of 02157 that aims at an effective use of functional programming in connection with courses and projects at the M.Sc. programme in computer science and engineering, and in industrial applications.

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- “Practical applications”. Involving a database, for example.
- Functional pearls. Monadic parsing, for example.

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Main functional ingredients of F#:

- The interactive environment
- Values, expressions, types, patterns
- Declarations of values and recursive functions
- Binding, environment and evaluation
- Type inference

GOAL: By the end of this first part you have constructed **succinct**, **elegant** and **understandable** F# programs, e.g. for

- $\text{sum}(m, n) = \sum_{i=m}^n i$
- Fibonacci numbers ($F_0 = 0, F_1 = 1, F_n = F_{n-1} + F_{n-2}$)
- Binomial coefficients $\binom{n}{k}$

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```
2*3 + 4;;
```

⇐ Input to the F# system

```
val it : int = 10
```

⇐ Answer from the F# system

- The *keyword* `val` indicates a value is computed
- The *integer* `10` is the computed value
- `int` is the *type* of the computed value
- The *identifier* `it` names the (last) computed value

The notion *binding* explains which entities are named by identifiers.

`it ↦ 10` reads: “`it` is bound to 10”

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A value declaration has the form: `let identifier = expression`

```
let price = 25 * 5;;
```

← A declaration as input

```
val price : int = 125
```

← Answer from the F# system

The effect of a declaration is a binding: `price ↦ 125`

Bound identifiers can be used in expressions and declarations, e.g.

```
let newPrice = 2*price;;
```

```
val newPrice : int = 250
```

```
newPrice > 500;;
```

```
val it : bool = false
```

A collection of bindings

price	↦	125
newPrice	↦	250
it	↦	false

is called an environment

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Function Declarations 1: `let f x = e`

Declaration of the circle area function:

```
let circleArea r = System.Math.PI * r * r;;
```

- `System.Math` is a program library
- `PI` is an identifier (with type `float`) for π in `System.Math`

The type is *automatically inferred* in the answer:

```
val circleArea : float -> float
```

Applications of the function:

```
circleArea 1.0;; (* this is a comment *)  
val it : float = 3.141592654
```

```
circleArea(3.2);; // A comment: optional brackets  
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An **anonymous function** computing the number of days in a month:

```
function
| 1 -> 31 // January
| 2 -> 28 // February // not a leap year
| 3 -> 31 // March
| 4 -> 30 // April
| 5 -> 31 // May
| 6 -> 30 // June
| 7 -> 31 // July
| 8 -> 31 // August
| 9 -> 30 // September
| 10 -> 31 // October
| 11 -> 30 // November
| 12 -> 31;;// December
... warning ... Incomplete pattern matches ...
val it : int -> int = <fun:clo@17-2>

it 2;;
val it : int = 28
```

A function expression with a pattern for every month

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A function expression with a pattern for every month

One *wildcard pattern* `_` can cover many similar cases:

```
function
| 2  -> 28  // February
| 4  -> 30  // April
| 6  -> 30  // June
| 9  -> 30  // September
| 11 -> 30  // November
| _  -> 31; ; // All other months
```

An even more succinct definition can be given using an *or-pattern*:

```
function
| 2          -> 28  // February
| 4|6|9|11 -> 30  // April, June, September, November
| _          -> 31  // All other months
; ;
```

One *wildcard pattern* `_` can cover many similar cases:

```
function
| 2  -> 28  // February
| 4  -> 30  // April
| 6  -> 30  // June
| 9  -> 30  // September
| 11 -> 30  // November
| _  -> 31; ; // All other months
```

An even more succinct definition can be given using an *or-pattern*:

```
function
| 2          -> 28  // February
| 4|6|9|11 -> 30  // April, June, September, November
| _          -> 31  // All other months
; ;
```


Recursion. Example $n! = 1 \cdot 2 \cdot \dots \cdot n$, $n \geq 0$

Mathematical definition:

recursion formula

$$\begin{aligned} 0! &= 1 & (i) \\ n! &= n \cdot (n-1)!, \quad \text{for } n > 0 & (ii) \end{aligned}$$

Computation:

$$\begin{aligned} &3! \\ &= 3 \cdot (3-1)! & (ii) \\ &= 3 \cdot 2 \cdot (2-1)! & (ii) \\ &= 3 \cdot 2 \cdot 1 \cdot (1-1)! & (ii) \\ &= 3 \cdot 2 \cdot 1 \cdot 1 & (i) \\ &= 6 \end{aligned}$$

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Recursive declaration. Example $n!$

Function declaration:

```
let rec fact = function
  | 0 -> 1                (* i *)
  | n -> n * fact(n-1);;  (* ii *)
val fact : int -> int
```

Evaluation:

```
fact(3)
~> 3 * fact(3 - 1)      (ii) [n ↦ 3]
~> 3 * 2 * fact(2 - 1)  (ii) [n ↦ 2]
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~> 3 * 2 * 1 * 1        (i)  [n ↦ 0]
~> 6
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 $e_1 \rightsquigarrow e_2$ reads: e_1 evaluates to e_2

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Recursion. Example $x^n = x \cdot \dots \cdot x$, n occurrences of x

Mathematical definition:

recursion formula

$$x^0 = 1 \quad (1)$$

$$x^n = x \cdot x^{n-1}, \quad \text{for } n > 0 \quad (2)$$

Function declaration:

```
let rec power = function
  | (_, 0) -> 1.0                (* 1 *)
  | (x, n) -> x * power(x, n-1) (* 2 *)
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Patterns:

$(_, 0)$ matches any **pair** of the form $(x, 0)$.

The **wildcard** pattern $_$ matches any value.

(x, n) matches any pair (u, i) **yielding** the bindings

$$x \mapsto u, n \mapsto i$$

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Evaluation. Example: `power(4.0, 2)`

Function declaration:

```
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Evaluation:

<code>power(4.0, 2)</code>	
\rightsquigarrow <code>4.0 * power(4.0, 2 - 1)</code>	Clause 2, $[x \mapsto 4.0, n \mapsto 2]$
\rightsquigarrow <code>4.0 * power(4.0, 1)</code>	
\rightsquigarrow <code>4.0 * (4.0 * power(4.0, 1 - 1))</code>	Clause 2, $[x \mapsto 4.0, n \mapsto 1]$
\rightsquigarrow <code>4.0 * (4.0 * power(4.0, 0))</code>	
\rightsquigarrow <code>4.0 * (4.0 * 1)</code>	Clause 1
\rightsquigarrow <code>16.0</code>	

If-then-else expressions

Form:

if b then e_1 else e_2

Evaluation rules:

if **true** then e_1 else e_2 \rightsquigarrow e_1

if **false** then e_1 else e_2 \rightsquigarrow e_2

Alternative declarations:

```
let rec fact n      = if n=0 then 1
                      else n * fact(n-1);
```

```
let rec power(x,n)  = if n=0 then 1.0
                      else x * power(x,n-1);
```

Use of patterns usually gives more understandable programs

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Type name `bool`

Values `false`, `true`

Operator	Type	
<code>not</code>	<code>bool -> bool</code>	negation

<code>not true = false</code> <code>not false = true</code>
--

Expressions

`e1 && e2`

“conjunction $e_1 \wedge e_2$ ”

`e1 || e2`

“disjunction $e_1 \vee e_2$ ”

— are lazily evaluated, e.g.

<code>1 < 2 5 / 0 = 1</code> <code>↪ true</code>

Precedence: `&&` has higher than `||`

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Type name `string`

Values `"abcd"`, `" "`, `" "`, `"123\"321"` (escape sequence for `"`)

Operator	Type	
<code>String.length</code>	<code>string -> int</code>	length of string
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<code>= < <= ...</code>	<code>string*string -> bool</code>	comparisons
<code>string</code>	<code>obj -> string</code>	conversions

Examples

```
- "auto" < "car";  
> val it = true : bool  
  
- "abc"+"de";  
> val it = "abcde": string
```

```
- String.length("abc"^"def");  
> val it = 6 : int  
  
- string(6+18);  
> val it = "24": string
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Types — every expression has a type $e : \tau$

Basic types:

	type name	example of values
Integers	int	~27, 0, 15, 21000
Floats	float	~27.3, 0.0, 48.21
Booleans	bool	true, false

Pairs:

If $e_1 : \tau_1$ and $e_2 : \tau_2$ then $(e_1, e_2) : \tau_1 * \tau_2$

pair (tuple) type constructor

Functions:

if $f : \tau_1 \rightarrow \tau_2$ and $a : \tau_1$ then $f(a) : \tau_2$

function type constructor

Examples:

```
(4.0, 2): float*int
power: float*int -> float
power(4.0, 2): float
```

* has higher precedence than \rightarrow

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let rec power = function
  | (_,0) -> 1.0 (* 1 *)
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- The type of the function must have the form: $\tau_1 * \tau_2 \rightarrow \tau_3$, because argument is a pair.
- $\tau_3 = \text{float}$ because `1.0:float` (Clause 1, function value.)
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- `x*power(x,n-1):float`, because $\tau_3 = \text{float}$.
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`int*int -> int` or `float*float -> float`
as types, but no “mixture” of `int` and `float`
- Therefore `x:float` and $\tau_1 = \text{float}$.

The F# system determines the type `float*int -> float`

Type inference: `power`

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- The interactive environment
- Values, expressions, types, patterns
- Declarations of values and recursive functions
- Binding, environment and evaluation
- Type inference

Breath first round through many concepts aiming at program construction from the first day.

We will go deeper into each of the concepts later in the course.

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- Lists: values and constructors
- Recursions following the structure of lists

The purpose of this lecture is to give you an (as short as possible) introduction to lists, so that you can solve a problem which can illustrate some of F#'s high-level features.

This part is *not* intended as a comprehensive presentation on lists, and we will return to the topic again later.

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A list is a finite sequence of elements having the same type:

$[v_1; \dots; v_n]$ (`[]` is called the empty list)

```
[2;3;6];;
val it : int list = [2; 3; 6]

["a"; "ab"; "abc"; ""];;
val it : string list = ["a"; "ab"; "abc"; ""]

[sin; cos];;
val it : (float->float) list = [<fun:...>; <fun:...>]

[(1,true); (3,true)];;
val it : (int * bool) list = [(1, true); (3, true)]

[[]; [1]; [1;2]];;
val it : int list list = [[]; [1]; [1; 2]]
```

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```

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val it : int list = [2; 3; 6]
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val it : string list = ["a"; "ab"; "abc"; ""]
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[sin; cos];;
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val it : (float->float) list = [<fun:...>; <fun:...>]
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[(1,true); (3,true)];;
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val it : (int * bool) list = [(1, true); (3, true)]
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A list is a finite sequence of elements having the same type:

$[v_1; \dots; v_n]$ ($[]$ is called the empty list)

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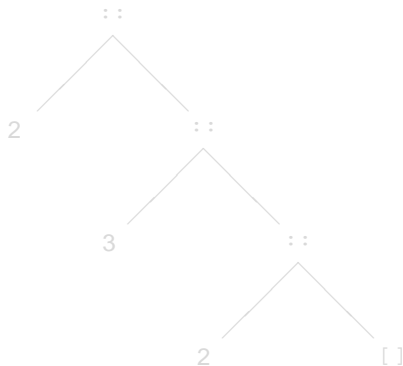
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Trees for lists

A non-empty list $[x_1, x_2, \dots, x_n]$, $n \geq 1$, consists of

- a *head* x_1 and
- a *tail* $[x_2, \dots, x_n]$



Graph for [2 , 3 , 2]

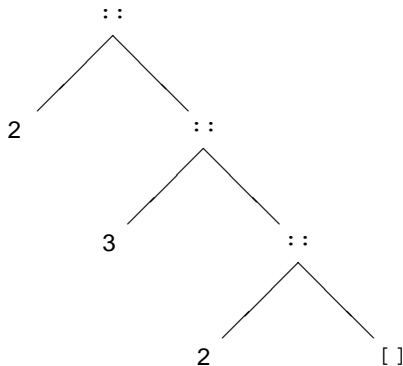


Graph for [2]

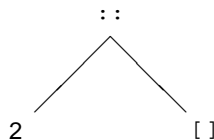
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Graph for $[2, 3, 2]$



Graph for $[2]$

List constructors: $[]$ and $::$

Lists are generated as follows:

- the empty list is a list, designated $[]$
- if x is an element and xs is a list, then so is $x :: xs$

(type consistency)

$::$ associate to the **right**, i.e. $x_1 :: x_2 :: xs$ means $x_1 :: (x_2 :: xs)$



Graph for $x_1 :: x_2 :: xs$

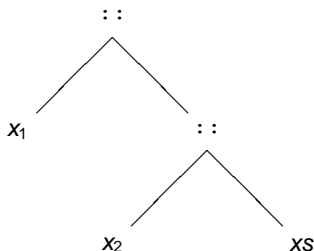
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Recursion on lists – a simple example

$$\text{suml } [x_1, x_2, \dots, x_n] = \sum_{i=1}^n x_i = x_1 + x_2 + \dots + x_n = x_1 + \sum_{i=2}^n x_i$$

Constructors are used in list patterns

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let rec suml = function
  | []      -> 0
  | x::xs   -> x + suml xs;;
> val suml : int list -> int
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suml [1;2]
~> 1 + suml [2]           (x ↦ 1 and xs ↦ [2])
~> 1 + (2 + suml [])      (x ↦ 2 and xs ↦ [])
~> 1 + (2 + 0)            (the pattern [] matches the value [])
~> 1 + 2
~> 3
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Recursion follows the structure of lists

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Recursion follows the structure of lists

Infix functions

It is possible to declare **infix functions** in F#, i.e. the function symbol is **between** the arguments.

The *prefix function* on lists is declared as follows:

```
let rec (<=.) xs ys =  
    match (xs,ys) with  
    | ([],_) -> true  
    | (_,[]) -> false  
    | (x::xs',y::ys') -> x=y && xs' <=. ys';;  
  
[1;2;3] <=. [1;2];;  
val it : bool = false
```

- The special way of declaring the function `(<=.) xs ys` makes `<=.` an infix operator
- The `match (xs,ys)` construct allows for branching out on patterns for `(xs,ys)`

Suitable use of infix functions can increase readability significantly

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- `length xs` : the length of the list `xs` (is a predefined function).
- `remove(x, ys)` : removes all occurrences of `x` in the list `ys`

Have fun with your first non-trivial functional program:
polynomials represented as lists

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