

# Comp 311

# Functional Programming

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# Homework 0

- Please follow these instructions for checking out your **turnin** repository as soon as possible:
  - Follow the instructions under [Homework Submission Guide](#) at the [Course Website](#)
  - Submit a **hw\_0** folder with a single file **HelloWorld.txt** and a single line of text, **Hello, world!**
  - This submission is not for credit
  - We will let you know if we have not received your submission
  - You will be responsible for successfully submitting your **hw\_1** assignment using **turnin**
  - Please bring problems to our attention as soon as possible

*What is functional  
programming?  
(continued)*

# Why Avoid Side Effects?

- **Programs are easier to write:** There are fewer interactions between program components, enabling multiple programmers (or a single programmer on multiple days) to work together more easily
- **Programs are easier to read:** Pieces of a program can be read and understood in isolation
- **Programs are easier to test:** Less context needs to be built up before calling a function to test it
- **Programs are easier to debug:** Problems can be isolated more easily, and behavior is inherently deterministic
- **Programs are easier to reason about:** The model of computation needed to understand a program without mutation is much simpler

# Why Avoid Side Effects?

- **Programs are easier to execute in parallel:** Because separate pieces of a computation do not interact, it is easy to compute them on separate processors
- This is an increasingly important consideration in the era of multicore chips, big data, and distributing computing
  - *This advantage undermines an often cited argument for mutation (efficiency)*

# What is Functional Programming?

- A style of programming that emphasizes functions as the basis of computation
  - Functions are applied to arguments
  - Functions are passed as arguments to other functions
  - Functions are returned as values of applications

# Why Emphasize Functions?

- Functions allow us to factor out common code
  - DRY: Don't Repeat Yourself
    - Why is this important?
  - Passing functions as arguments is often the most straightforward way to abide by DRY
  - Returning functions as values is also important for DRY

# Why Emphasize Functions?

- Functions allow us to concisely package computations and move them from one control point to another
- Aids us with implementing and reasoning about parallel and distributed programming (yet again)



# A Word on Object-Oriented Programming

- There is no tension between functional and object-oriented programming. In fact, OOP can be cast as an enrichment of FP.

<https://www.cs.rice.edu/~javaplt/papers/OOPEnrichesFP.pdf>

- In many ways, they complement one another
- Scala was designed to integrate both styles of programming

# A New Paradigm

- Set aside what you've learned about programming
- The style we will practice might seem unfamiliar at first
- Initially, the material will seem quite basic
  - We will build a solid foundation that will enable us to explore advanced topics

# A New Paradigm

- We will re-examine many things we've (partially) learned
- Often in life, the way forward is to rethink our assumptions
- Later, we can integrate what we've learned into our larger body of knowledge

*Our first exposure  
to computation:  
Arithmetic*

Our First Exposure to Computation:

Arithmetic

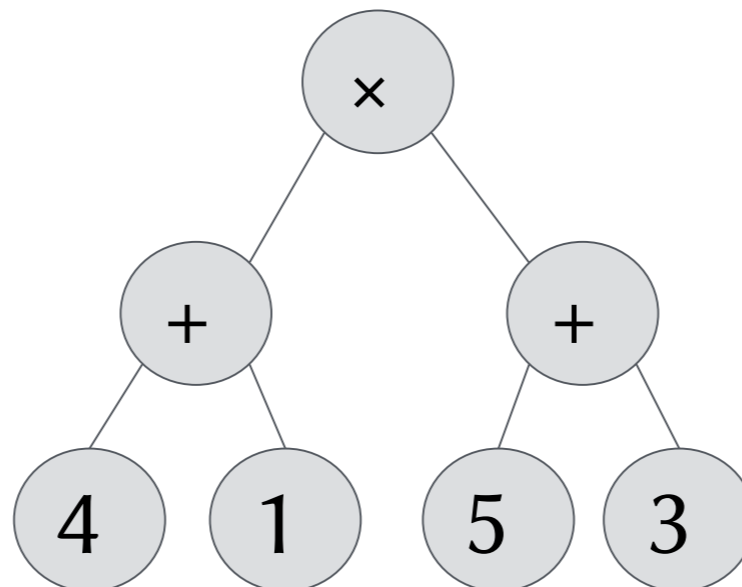
$$4 + 5 = 9$$

$$4 + 5 \mapsto 9$$

**expressions are reduced to values**

# Critical Intuition

- Reduction rules (although typically written using conventional [*concrete*] syntax) work on *abstract syntax trees* (ASTs).
- Every expression in conventional (concrete) syntax corresponds to an abstract syntax tree.
- Example:  $(4 + 1) \times (5 + 3)$





# Critical Intuition II

- Tree structure is typically encoded in concrete syntax using parentheses
- Example:  
normal function application notation, *e.g.*,  
 $prod(sum(3,1), sum(5,3))$
- Expressions with parentheses are hard for humans to read so common mathematical notation heavily relies on infix notation for binary operators and precedence conventions, *e.g.*,  
 $2 + 3 \times 6$  vs.  $2 \times 3 + 6$
- Thinking about syntax in terms of ASTs simplifies reduction rules

# Expressions are Reduced to Values

- Rules for a fixed set of operators:
  - $4 + 5 \mapsto 9$
  - $4 - 5 \mapsto -1$
  - $4 \times 5 \mapsto 20$
  - $9 / 3 \mapsto 3$
  - $4^2 \mapsto 16$
  - $\sqrt{4} \mapsto 2$

# Expressions are Reduced to Values

To reduce an operator applied to expressions, first reduce the subexpressions, left to right:

$$(4 + 1) \times (5 + 3) \mapsto$$

$$5 \times (5 + 3) \mapsto$$

$$5 \times 8 \mapsto$$

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# Expressions are Reduced to Values

A precedence is defined on operators to help us decide what to reduce next:

$$4 + 1 \times 5 + 3 \mapsto$$

$$4 + 5 + 3 \mapsto$$

$$9 + 3 \mapsto$$

$$12$$

# New Operations Often Introduce New Types of Values

- $4 + 5 \mapsto 9$
- $4 - 5 \mapsto -1$
- $4 \times 5 \mapsto 20$
- $4 / 5 \mapsto 0.8$
- $4^2 \mapsto 16$
- $\sqrt{-1} \mapsto i$

Old Operations on New Types of Values  
Often Introduce Yet More New Types of  
Values

$$1 + i$$

So, what are types?

# Values Have Value Types

**Definition:** *A value type is a name for a collection of values with common properties.*



# Values Have Value Types

- Examples of value types:
  - Natural numbers
  - Integers
  - Floating point numbers
  - *And many more*

# Expressions Have Static Types

**Definition (Attempt 1):** A *static type* is an assertion that an expression reduces to a value with a particular *value type*.

# Expressions Have Static Types

$4 + 5 : \mathbf{N} \mapsto 9 : \mathbf{N}$

Static Type



Value Type



# Rules for Static Types

- If an expression is a value, its static type is its value type

5: **N**

- With each operator, there are “if-then” rules stating the required static types of the operands, and the static type of the application:

***Integer Addition: If the operands to + are of type N then the application is of type N***

# Expressions Have Static Types

**Definition (Attempt 1):** A *static type* is an *assertion* that an expression reduces to a value with a particular *value type*.

Not quite.

# Expressions Have Static Types

$16 / 20 : \mathbf{Q} \mapsto 0.8 : \mathbf{Q}$

So far, so good...

# Expressions Have Static Types

$16 / 0 : Q \mapsto ?$

# Expressions Have Static Types

**Definition (Attempt 2):** A *static type* is an *assertion* that either an expression reduces to a value with a particular *value type*, or one of a well-defined set of exceptional events occurs.



# Why Static Types?

- Using our rules, we can determine whether an expression has a static type.
- If it does, we say the expression is *well-typed*, and we know that proceeding with our computation is *type safe*:

Either our computation will finish with a value of the determined value type, or one of a well-defined exceptional events will occur.

# What Constitutes the Set of Well-Defined Exceptional Events in Arithmetic?

- A “division by zero” error
- What else?

# What are the Well-Defined Exceptional Events in Arithmetic?

- A “division by zero” error
- What if we run out of paper?
  - Or pencil lead? Or erasers?
- What if we run out of time?

# What Constitutes the Set of Well-Defined Exceptional Events in Arithmetic?

- A “division by zero” error
- We run out of some finite resource

*Our second exposure  
to computation:  
Algebra*

# Now, We Learn How to Define Our Own Operators (a.k.a. functions)

$$f(x) = 2x + 1$$

$$f(x, y) = x^2 + y^2$$

# And We Learn How to Compute With Them

$$f(x) = 2x + 1$$

---

$$f(3 + 2) \mapsto$$

$$f(5) \mapsto$$

$$(2 \times 5) + 1 \mapsto$$

$$10 + 1 \mapsto$$

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# The Substitution Rule of Computation

- To reduce an application of a function to a set of arguments:
  - Reduce the arguments, left to right
  - Reduce the body of the function, with each parameter replaced by the corresponding argument



# Using the Substitution Rule

$$f(x, y) = x^2 + y^2$$

---

$$f(4 - 5, 3 + 1) \mapsto$$

$$f(-1, 3 + 1) \mapsto$$

$$f(-1, 4) \mapsto$$

$$-1^2 + 4^2 \mapsto$$

$$1 + 16 \mapsto$$

$$17$$

# What About Types?

- Eventually, we learn that our functions need to include rules indicating the required types of their arguments, and the types of applications
- You might have seen notation like this in a math class:

$$f: \mathbf{Z} \rightarrow \mathbf{Z}$$

# Typing Rules for Functions

$$f: \mathbf{Z} \rightarrow \mathbf{Z}$$

What does this rule mean?

# Typing Rules for Functions

$$f: \mathbf{Z} \rightarrow \mathbf{Z}$$

- We can interpret the arrow as denoting data flow:

*The function  $f$  consumes arguments with value type  $\mathbf{Z}$  and produces values with value type  $\mathbf{Z}$*

*(or one of a well-defined set of exceptional events occurs).*

# Typing Rules for Functions

$$f: \mathbf{Z} \rightarrow \mathbf{Z}$$

- We can also interpret the arrow as logical implication:

*If  $f$  is applied to an argument expression with static type  $\mathbf{Z}$  then the application expression has static type  $\mathbf{Z}$ .*

# What are The Exceptional Events in Algebra?

- A “division by zero” error
- We run out of some finite resource
- What else?

# The Substitution Rule Allows for Computations that Never Finish

$$f: \mathbf{Z} \times \mathbf{Z} \rightarrow \mathbf{Z}$$

$$f(x, y) = f(x, y)$$

---

$$f(4 - 5, 3 + 1) \mapsto$$

$$f(-1, 3 + 1) \mapsto$$

$$f(-1, 4) \mapsto$$

$$f(-1, 4) \mapsto$$

...

# The Substitution Rule Allows for Computations that Keep Getting Larger

$$f: \mathbf{Z} \times \mathbf{Z} \rightarrow \mathbf{Z}$$

$$f(x, y) = f(f(x, y), f(x, y))$$

---

$$f(4 - 5, 3 + 1) \mapsto$$

$$f(-1, 3 + 1) \mapsto$$

$$f(-1, 4) \mapsto$$

$$f(f(-1, 4), f(-1, 4)) \mapsto$$

$$f(f(f(-1, 4), f(-1, 4)), f(f(-1, 4), f(-1, 4))) \mapsto$$

...



But We Need at Least Limited Recursion to  
Define Common Algebraic Constructs

$$\begin{array}{c} !: \\ \mathbf{N} \rightarrow \mathbf{N} \end{array}$$

$$n! = \begin{cases} 1 & \text{if } n = 0 \\ n(n-1)! & \text{if } n > 0 \end{cases}$$

# What are The Exceptional Events in Algebra?

- A “division by zero” error
- We run out of some finite resource
- The computation never stops (unbounded time)
- The computation keeps getting larger (unbounded space)

*Our third exposure  
to computation:  
Core Scala*

# Core Scala

- We will continue to use algebra as our model of computation
- We will switch to Scala syntax
- We will introduce new value types

# Value Types in Core Scala

Int: -3, -2, -1, 0, 1, 2, 3

Double: 1.414, 2.718, 3.14,  $\infty$

Boolean: false, true

String: "Hello, world!"

# Primitive Operators on Ints and Doubles in Core Scala

Algebraic operators:

$e + e'$     $e - e'$     $e * e'$     $e / e'$

- For each operator:
  - If both arguments to an application of an operator are of type `Int` then the application is of type `Int`
  - If both arguments to an application of an operator are of type `Double` then the application is of type `Double`

# Primitive Operators on Ints and Doubles in Core Scala

Comparison operators:

$$e == e' \quad e <= e' \quad e >= e' \quad e != e'$$
$$e > e' \quad e < e'$$

- For each operator:
  - If both arguments to an application of an operator are of type Int then the application is of type Boolean
  - If both arguments to an application of an operator are of type Double then the application is of type Boolean

# Some Primitive Operators on Booleans in Core Scala

Conjunction, Disjunction:

$$e \ \& \ e' \quad e \ | \ e'$$

- In both cases:
  - If both arguments to an application are of type Boolean then the application is of type Boolean



# More Primitive Operators on Booleans in Core Scala

Negation:

`!e`

- If the argument to an application is of type `Boolean` then the application is of type `Boolean`

# Yet More Primitive Operators on Booleans in Core Scala

Conditional Expressions:

$\text{if } (e) \ e' \ \text{else } e''$

- If the first argument is of type `Boolean` and the second and third argument are of the same type  $T$  then the application is of type  $T$

# Primitive Operators on Strings in Core Scala

String Concatenation:

$$e + e'$$

- If both arguments are of type `String` then the application is of type `String`

# An Example Function Definition in Core Scala

```
def square(x: Double) = x * x
```

# Syntax for Defining Functions

```
def fnName(arg0: type0, ..., argk: typek): returnType =  
    expr
```

- If there is no recursion, we may elide the return type:

```
def fnName(arg0: type0, ..., argk: typek) =  
    expr
```

# The Substitution Rule Works as Before

```
def square(x: Double) = x * x
```

```
square(2.0 * 3.0) ↪  
square(6.0) ↪  
6.0 * 6.0 ↪  
36.0
```

# The Nature of Ints

# Fixed Size Ints

- Unlike the integers we might write on a sheet of paper, the values of type Int are of a fixed size.
- For every  $n: \text{Int}$ ,

$$-2^{31} \leq n \leq 2^{31} - 1$$



# Fixing the Size of Numbers Has Many Benefits

- The time needed to compute the application of an operation on two numbers is bounded.
- The space needed to store a number is bounded.
- We can easily reuse the space used for one number to store another.

# But We Need to Concern Ourselves with Overflow

- If we compute a value larger than  $2^{31} - 1$ , our representation will “wrap around” (i.e., overflow):

$$2147483647 + 1 \mapsto -2147483648$$

# The Moral of Computing with Ints

- If possible, determine the range of potential results of a computation
  - Ensure that this range is no larger than the range of representable values of type Int
- Otherwise, include in your computation a check for overflow

# The Nature of Doubles

# Scientific Notation

- Numeric values in scientific computations can span enormous ranges, from the very large to the very small
- At the same time, scientific measurements are of limited precision
- “Scientific notation” was devised in order to efficiently represent approximate values that span a large range

# Scientific Notation

$$6.022 \times 10^{23}$$

mantissa

exponent

# Scientific Notation and Efficient Computation

- We normalize the mantissa so that its value is at least 1 but less than 10
- If we
  - Set the number of digits in the mantissa to a fixed precision, and
  - Set the number of digits in the exponent to a fixed precision
- Then all numbers in our notation are of a fixed size

# Doubles

- Values of type Double are stored as with fixed sized numbers in scientific notation, but with a few differences:
- Finite, nonzero numeric values can be expressed in the form:

$$\pm m 2^e$$



# Doubles

$$\pm m 2^e$$

- $1 \leq m \leq 2^{53}-1$
- $-2^{10}-53+3 \leq e \leq 2^{10}-53$

# Doubles

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- $1 \leq m \leq 2^{53}-1$
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- $-1074 \leq e \leq 971$

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# Scientific Notation

$$\underbrace{6.022}_{\text{mantissa}} \times \underbrace{10}_{\text{base}} \underbrace{23}_{\text{exponent}}$$

# Scientific Notation and Efficient Computation

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# Doubles

$$\pm m \times 2^e$$

- $1 \leq m \leq 2^{53} - 1$
- $-1022 \leq e \leq 971$

For more details, you can read about double-precision binary representation:  
[https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Double-precision\\_floating-point\\_format](https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Double-precision_floating-point_format)



# Doubles

$$\pm m 2^e$$

- $1 \leq m \leq 2^{53}-1$
- $-2^{10}-53+3 \leq e \leq 2^{10}-53$
- $-1074 \leq e \leq 971$

# Representations of Doubles

- Many quantities have more than one representation in this format:

$$1024 \times 2^{500}$$

$$512 \times 2^{501}$$

# Distances Between Doubles

- The distance between adjacent values of type Double is not constant
  - The values are most dense near zero
  - They grow sparser exponentially as one moves away from zero

# Operations and Rounding

- Arithmetic operations round to the closest representable value
- Ties are broken by choosing the value with the smaller absolute value

# Overflow with Doubles

- Computations on Doubles that result in values larger than the largest finite Double are represented with special values:

Double.PositiveInfinity

Double.NegativeInfinity

# Underflow with Doubles

- Computations on Doubles that result in values with magnitudes smaller than the smallest non-zero Double are represented with special values:

0.0      -0.0

# Division By Zero

- Division of a non-zero finite value by a zero value results in an infinite value:

$1.0 / 0.0 \mapsto \text{Double.PositiveInfinity}$

$1.0 / -0.0 \mapsto \text{Double.NegativeInfinity}$

# Division By Zero

- As does division of an infinite value by a zero value:

`Double.PositiveInfinity / 0.0`  $\mapsto$  `Double.PositiveInfinity`



# Division By Zero

- Division of a zero value by a zero value results in another special value NaN (for “Not a Number”):

$0.0 / 0.0 \mapsto \text{Double.NaN}$

$-0.0 / 0.0 \mapsto \text{Double.NaN}$