# Functional Programming with Scheme

#### Keep reading: Scott, Chapter 11.1-11.3, 11.5-11.6, Scott, 3.6

## Lecture Outline

#### Scheme

- Exercises with map, foldl and foldr
- Binding with let, let\*, and letrec
- Scoping in Scheme
- Closures
- Scoping, revisited





Write len3, which computes length of list, using a single call to foldl (define (len3 lis) (foldl ...))

$$id_{n-1}$$
 (e<sub>n</sub>)

## Exercises $(1(2(3))) \rightarrow (123)$

(define (foldl op lis id) (if (null? lis) id (foldl op (cdr lis) (op id (car lis)))) )

 Write flatten3 using map and fold!/foldr
 (define (flatten3 (is)) (cond ((null? lis) (is)) ((atom? lis) (lis+ lis)) ((atom? lis) (lis+ lis)) (else (fold! append (map flatters lis) '()))
 Write flatten4 this time using fold! but not map.

#### Exercises

- Write a function that counts the appearances of symbols a, b and c in a list of flat lists
  - (count-sym '((a b) (c a) (a b d)) yields

((a 3) (b 2) (c 1))

- Natural idea: use map and fold
- map and fold (or map and reduce), are the foundation of Google's MapReduce model
  - Canonical MapReduce example [Dean and Ghemawat OSDI'04] is WordCount

# Tail Recursion, A Bit More

- A tail expression is an expression that occurs in tail context. Defined inductively as follows:
  - The body of function is a tail expression
  - If (if e1 e2 e3) is a tail expression, then e2 and e3 are tail expressions
- Examples

(define (foldl op lis id) (if (null? lis)

# Tail Recursion, A Bit More

A tail call is a tail expression that is a function call. E.g.,
 (define (foldl op lis id)

 (if (null? lis) id
 (foldl op (cdr lis) (op id (car lis)))))))

- A tail recursive function is a function whose "leaf" tail expressions are either returns or tail calls to itself (still informal)
- Tail calls give rise to efficient implementation of Continuation Passing Style (CPS)

## Tail Recursion, A Bit More





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# Let Expressions

let, let\*, letrec

Let-expr ::= <u>(let (Binding-list)</u> S-expr1) Let\*-expr ::= <u>(let\* (Binding-list)</u> S-expr1) Binding-list ::= <u>(Var S-expr) { (Var S-expr)</u>}

- let and let\* expressions define a binding between each Var and the S-expr value, which holds during execution of S-expr1
- let evaluates the S-exprs in Binding-list in current environment "in parallel"
- let\* evaluates the S-exprs from left to right
- Associate values with variables for the local computation

#### Questions

(let 
$$((x 2))$$
  $(* x x)$ ) yields 4  
Briding that S-express  
(let  $((x 2))$  (let  $((y 1))$  (+ x y)) ) yields what? 3  
(let  $((x 2))$  (let  $((y 1))$  (+ x y)) ) yields what? 3  
(let  $((x 10)$  (y (\* 2 x))) (\* x y)) yields what?  
(let  $((x 10)$  (y (\* 2 x))) (\* x y)) yields what?  
(let\*  $((x 10)$  (y (\* 2 x))) (\* x y)) yields what?

## Let Expressions

Letrec-expr ::= <u>(letrec (Binding-list )</u> S-expr1 ) Binding-list ::= <u>(Var S-expr )</u> { <u>(Var S-expr )</u> }

- letrec Vars are bound to fresh locations holding undefined values; S-exprs are evaluated "in parallel" in augmented environment
- letrec allows for definition of mutually recursive functions

# Regions (Scopes) in Scheme

- let, let\* and letrec give rise to block structure
- They have the same syntax but define different regions (scopes)

let

Region where binding is active: body of let

# Regions (Scopes) in Scheme

- let, let\* and letrec give rise to block structure
- They have the same syntax but define different regions (scopes)

let\*

Region: all bindings to the right plus body of let\*

# Regions (Scopes) in Scheme

- let, let\* and letrec give rise to block structure
- They have the same syntax but define different regions (scopes)

letrec

Region: entire letrec expression



Restriction: V1, V2 cannot be used as values in S-expise or S-expise.

## Let Introduces Nested Scopes



Assuming that Scheme uses static scoping, what would this expression yield?  $\int_{-\infty}^{\infty}$ (lef ((x 2)) (f 5)) vs (lef\* ((x 2)) (f 5))

#### Question

$$(\text{define (f z)}) = \int_{ts} f_{te} f_{twes} - 5 f_{tuchin}$$
  
 $(\text{let*}(x 5)(f(\text{lambda}(z)(* x z))))$   
 $(\text{map}(z)))$ 

What does this function do?

Answer: takes a list of numbers, z, and maps it to the times-5 list. E.g., (f '(1 2 3)) yields (5 10 15).



With dynamic scoping it evaluates to

(\* 2 ((lambda (a)(+ a 2)) 3) ) --> ??? /O



## Closures

- A closure is a function value plus the environment in which it is to be evaluated
  - Function value: e.g., (lambda (x) (+ x y))
  - Environment consists of bindings for variables not local to the function so the closure can eventually be evaluated: e.g., { y → 2 }
- A closure can be used as a function
  - Applied to arguments
  - Passed as an argument
  - Returned as a value

## Closures

- Normally, when let expression exits, its bindings disappear
- Closure bindings (i.e., bindings part of a closure) are special
  - When let exits, bindings become inactive, but they do not disappear
  - When closure is called, bindings become active
  - Closure bindings are "immortal"
    (let ((x 5)) f is  $\sum_{x \to 1^{\circ}} f_{x}$ (let ((f (let ((x 10)) (lambda () x))))
    (list x (f) x (f)) ) (5 (o 5 (o))

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# Scoping, revisited (Scott, Ch. 3.6)

- We discussed the two choices for mapping non-local variables to locations
  - Static scoping (early binding) and
  - Dynamic scoping (late binding)

Most languages choose static scoping

# Scoping, revisited

When we discussed scoping earlier, we assumed that functions were third-class values (i.e., functions cannot be passed as arguments or returned from other functions)

- Functions as third-class values...
  - When functions are third-class values, the function's static reference environment (i.e., closure bindings) is available on the stack. Function cannot outlive its referencing environment!

# Functions as Third-Class Values and Static Scoping



# Scoping, revisited

- Functions as first-class values
  - Static scoping is more involved. Function value may outlive static referencing environment!
  - Therefore, need "immortal" closure bindings
  - In languages that choose static scoping, local variables must have "unlimited extent" (i.e., when stack frame is popped, local variables do not disappear!)

# Scoping, revisited

- In functional languages local variables typically have unlimited extent
- In imperative languages local variables typically have limited extent (i.e., when stack frame is popped, local variables disappear)
  - Imperative languages (Fortran, Pascal, C) disallow truly first-class function values
  - More and more languages do allow first-class functions, e.g., Java 8, C++11

# More on Dynamic Scoping

- Shallow binding vs. deep binding
- Dynamic scoping with shallow binding
  - Reference environment for function/routine is not created until the function is called
    - I.e., all non-local references are resolved using the most-recent-frame-on-stack rule
  - Shallow binding is usually the default in languages with dynamic scoping
  - All examples of dynamic scoping we saw so far used shallow binding

# More on Dynamic Scoping

#### Dynamic scoping with deep binding

When a function/routine is passed as an argument, the code that passes the function/routine has a particular reference environment (the current one!) in mind. It passes this reference environment along with the function value (it passes a closure).



other\_routine(people, print\_routine) /\* call in main \*/

#### Exercise

```
(define A
  (lambda ()
    (let^{*})
          (C (lambda (P) (let ((x 4)) (P) )))
          (D (lambda () x))
           (B (lambda () (let ((x 3)) (C D))))
         (B))))
```

When we call > (A) in the interpreter, what gets printed? What would get printed if Scheme used dynamic scoping with shallow binding? Dynamic scoping and deep binding?  $_{3}$ 

(define (square x) (\* x x))

- Applicative-order (also referred to as eager) evaluation
  - Evaluates arguments before function value

(define (square x) (\* x x))

- Normal-order (also referred to as lazy) evaluation
  - Evaluates function value before arguments

Scheme uses applicative-order evaluation

### So Far

#### Essential functional programming concepts

- Reduction semantics
- Lists and recursion
- Higher-order functions
  - Map and fold (also known as reduce)
- Scoping
- Evaluation order

#### Scheme

# Coming Up

 Lambda calculus: theoretical foundation of functional programming

#### Haskell

- Algebraic data types and pattern matching
- Lazy evaluation
- Type inference
- Monads

#### The End