

Chapter 2

ML, a Functional Programming Language

(Version of 24 September 2004)

1. <i>Expressions</i>	2.2
2. <i>Value declarations</i>	2.13
3. <i>Function declarations</i>	2.16
4. <i>Type inference</i>	2.18
5. <i>Anonymous functions</i>	2.20
6. <i>Specifications</i>	2.22
7. <i>Tuples and records</i>	2.24
8. <i>Functions with several arguments/results</i>	2.26
9. <i>Currying</i>	2.28
10. <i>Pattern matching and case analysis</i>	2.32
11. <i>Local declarations</i>	2.36
12. <i>New operators</i>	2.39
13. <i>Recursive functions</i>	2.40
14. <i>Side effects</i>	2.41
15. <i>Exception declarations</i>	2.42
16. <i>Functional languages vs. imperative languages</i>	2.46

2.1. Expressions

Interacting with ML

- `32 + 15 ;`
`val it = 47 : int`
- `3.12 * 4.3 ;`
`val it = 13.416 : real`
- `not true ;`
`val it = false : bool`
- `"The Good, the Bad," ^ " and the Ugly" ;`
`val it = "The Good, the Bad, and the Ugly" : string`
- `(size("Esra") +`
`= size("Pierre")) div 2 ;`
`val it = 5 : int`

- ML has an *interpreter*
- ML is a *typed* language

Basic types

- **unit**: only one possible value: ()
- **int**: integers
- **real**: real numbers
- **bool**: truth values (or: Booleans) **true** and **false**
- **char**: characters
- **string**: character sequences

Operators

- We use *operator* and *function* as synonyms
- We use *argument*, *parameter*, and *operand* as synonyms

Operator types

```
- 2 + 3.5 ;
  ! 2 + 3.5 ;
  !      ^^^
  ! Type clash: expression of type real
  !           cannot have type int
```

The operators on the basic types are thus *typed*:
no mixing, no implicit conversions!

For convenience, the arithmetic operators are *overloaded*:
the same symbol is used for different operations,
but they have different realisations; for instance:

$+ : \text{int} \times \text{int} \rightarrow \text{int}$

$+ : \text{real} \times \text{real} \rightarrow \text{real}$

Integers

Syntax

- As usual, except the unary operator $-$ is represented by \sim
- Example: ~ 123

Basic operators on the integers

<i>op</i>	:	<i>type</i>	<i>form</i>	<i>precedence</i>
$+$:	$\text{int} \times \text{int} \rightarrow \text{int}$	infix	6
$-$:	$\text{int} \times \text{int} \rightarrow \text{int}$	infix	6
$*$:	$\text{int} \times \text{int} \rightarrow \text{int}$	infix	7
div	:	$\text{int} \times \text{int} \rightarrow \text{int}$	infix	7
mod	:	$\text{int} \times \text{int} \rightarrow \text{int}$	infix	7
$=$:	$\text{int} \times \text{int} \rightarrow \text{bool}$ *	infix	4
$<>$:	$\text{int} \times \text{int} \rightarrow \text{bool}$ *	infix	4
$<$:	$\text{int} \times \text{int} \rightarrow \text{bool}$	infix	4
$<=$:	$\text{int} \times \text{int} \rightarrow \text{bool}$	infix	4
$>$:	$\text{int} \times \text{int} \rightarrow \text{bool}$	infix	4
$>=$:	$\text{int} \times \text{int} \rightarrow \text{bool}$	infix	4
\sim	:	$\text{int} \rightarrow \text{int}$	prefix	
abs	:	$\text{int} \rightarrow \text{int}$	prefix	

(* the exact type will be defined later)

- The infix operators associate to the left
- Their operands are always *all* evaluated

Real numbers

Syntax

- As usual, except the unary operator $-$ is represented by \sim
- Examples: 234.2 , ~ 12.34 , $\sim 34E2$, $4.57E\sim 3$

Basic operators on the reals

<i>op</i>	:	<i>type</i>	<i>form</i>	<i>precedence</i>
$+$:	$\text{real} \times \text{real} \rightarrow \text{real}$	infix	6
$-$:	$\text{real} \times \text{real} \rightarrow \text{real}$	infix	6
$*$:	$\text{real} \times \text{real} \rightarrow \text{real}$	infix	7
$/$:	$\text{real} \times \text{real} \rightarrow \text{real}$	infix	7
$=$:	$\text{real} \times \text{real} \rightarrow \text{bool}^*$	infix	4
$\langle \rangle$:	$\text{real} \times \text{real} \rightarrow \text{bool}^*$	infix	4
$<$:	$\text{real} \times \text{real} \rightarrow \text{bool}$	infix	4
\leq	:	$\text{real} \times \text{real} \rightarrow \text{bool}$	infix	4
$>$:	$\text{real} \times \text{real} \rightarrow \text{bool}$	infix	4
\geq	:	$\text{real} \times \text{real} \rightarrow \text{bool}$	infix	4
\sim	:	$\text{real} \rightarrow \text{real}$	prefix	
abs	:	$\text{real} \rightarrow \text{real}$	prefix	
Math.sqrt	:	$\text{real} \rightarrow \text{real}$	prefix	
Math.In	:	$\text{real} \rightarrow \text{real}$	prefix	

(* the exact type will be defined later)

- The infix operators associate to the left
- Their operands are always *all* evaluated

Characters and strings

Syntax

- A *character* value is written as the symbol # immediately followed by the character enclosed in double-quotes "
- A *string* is a character sequence enclosed in double-quotes "
- Control characters can be included:
end-of-line: `\n` double-quote: `\"` backslash: `\\`

Basic operators on the characters and strings

Let 'strchar \times strchar' be 'char \times char' or 'string \times string'

<i>op</i>	:	<i>type</i>	<i>form</i>	<i>precedence</i>
=	:	strchar \times strchar \rightarrow bool *	infix	4
<>	:	strchar \times strchar \rightarrow bool *	infix	4
<	:	strchar \times strchar \rightarrow bool	infix	4
<=	:	strchar \times strchar \rightarrow bool	infix	4
>	:	strchar \times strchar \rightarrow bool	infix	4
>=	:	strchar \times strchar \rightarrow bool	infix	4
^	:	string \times string \rightarrow string	infix	6
size	:	string \rightarrow int	prefix	

(* the exact type will be defined later)

Use of the *lexicographic order*, according to the ASCII code

- The infix operators associate to the left
- Their operands are always *all* evaluated

Booleans

Syntax

- Truth values **true** and **false**
- Attention: **True** is *not* a value of type **bool**:
ML distinguishes uppercase and lowercase characters!

Basic operators on the Booleans

<i>op</i>	<i>: type</i>	<i>form</i>	<i>precedence</i>
andalso	$\text{bool} \times \text{bool} \rightarrow \text{bool}$	infix	3
orelse	$\text{bool} \times \text{bool} \rightarrow \text{bool}$	infix	2
not	$\text{bool} \rightarrow \text{bool}$	prefix	
=	$\text{bool} \times \text{bool} \rightarrow \text{bool}^*$	infix	4
<>	$\text{bool} \times \text{bool} \rightarrow \text{bool}^*$	infix	4

(* the exact type will be defined later)

Truth table

A	B	A andalso B	A orelse B
true	true	true	true
true	false	false	true
false	true	false	true
false	false	false	false

- The infix operators associate to the left
- The second operand of **andalso** & **orelse** is *not* always evaluated: *lazy* logical *and* & *or*

Example:

```
- ( 34 < 649 ) orelse ( Math.In(12.4) * 3.4 > 12.0 ) ;  
  val it = true : bool
```

The second operand, namely (**Math.In(12.4) * 3.4 > 12.0**), is *not* evaluated because the first operand evaluates to **true**

Another example:

```
- ( 34 < 649 ) orelse ( 0.0 / 0.0 > 999.9 ) ;  
  val it = true : bool
```

The second operand (**0.0 / 0.0 > 999.9**) is *not* evaluated, even though by itself it would lead to an error:

```
- ( 0.0 / 0.0 > 999.9 ) ;  
  ! Uncaught exception: Div
```


Type conversions

op : *type*

real : int \rightarrow real

ceil : real \rightarrow int

floor : real \rightarrow int

round : real \rightarrow int

trunc : real \rightarrow int

- **real**(2) + 3.5 ;
 val it = 5.5 : real
- **ceil**(23.65) ;
 val it = 24 : int
- **ceil**(~23.65) ;
 val it = ~23 : int
- **floor**(23.65) ;
 val it = 23 : int
- **floor**(~23.65) ;
 val it = ~24 : int
- **round**(23.65) ;
 val it = 24 : int
- **round**(23.5) ;
 val it = 24 : int
- **round**(22.5) ;
 val it = 22 : int

```
-   trunc(23.65) ;  
    val it = 23 : int  
  
-   trunc(~23.65) ;  
    val it = ~23 : int
```

op : *type*

chr : $\text{int} \rightarrow \text{char}$
ord : $\text{char} \rightarrow \text{int}$
str : $\text{char} \rightarrow \text{string}$

```
-   chr(97) ;  
    val it = #"a" : char  
  
-   ord(#"a") ;  
    val it = 97 : int  
  
-   str(#"a") ;  
    val it = "a" : string
```

Conversions are done according to the ASCII code

Evaluation of expressions

Reduction

$$3 + 4 * 2 < 5 * 2$$

$$\rightsquigarrow 3 + 8 < 5 * 2$$

$$\rightsquigarrow 11 < 5 * 2$$

$$\rightsquigarrow 11 < 10$$

$$\rightsquigarrow \mathbf{false}$$

- Note the precedence of the operators
- Reduction to a *normal form*
(a form that cannot be further reduced)
- This normal form is the *result* of the evaluation
- The type of the result is inferred from those of the operators

Principles

Reduction (evaluation) of the expression $E_1 \text{ op } E_2$

1. Reduction of the expression E_1 : $E_1 \rightsquigarrow \dots \rightsquigarrow N_1$

2. Reduction of the expression E_2 : $E_2 \rightsquigarrow \dots \rightsquigarrow N_2$

unless **op** is lazy and N_1 is such that E_2 need not be reduced

3. Application of the operator **op** to N_1 and N_2

Evaluation from left to right: first E_1 then E_2 (if necessary)

Conditional expressions

```
-   if 3 >= 0 then 4.1 + 2.3 else 2.1 / 0.0 ;  
    val it = 6.4 : real
```

Reduction

```
if 3 >= 0 then 4.1 + 2.3 else 2.1 / 0.0  
~> if true then 4.1 + 2.3 else 2.1 / 0.0  
~> 4.1 + 2.3  
~> 6.4
```

Principles

In the expression **if** $BExpr$ **then** $Expr_1$ **else** $Expr_2$

- $BExpr$ must be a Boolean expression
- $Expr_1$ and $Expr_2$ must be expressions of the same type

Reduction:

- $Expr_1$ is only evaluated if $BExpr$ evaluates to **true**
- $Expr_2$ is only evaluated if $BExpr$ evaluates to **false**

Remarks

- Note that **if** ... **then** ... **else** ... is an *expression*, but *not* a control structure
- There is no **if** ... **then** ... in functional languages: such an expression would be meaningless when its test (the Boolean expression) evaluates to **false**

2.2. Value declarations

Examples

- `val pi = 3.14159 ;`
`val pi = 3.14159 : real`
- `val twoPi = 2.0 * pi ;`
`val twoPi = 6.28318 : real`
- `twoPi * 5.3 ;`
`val it = 33.300854 : real`
- `it / 2.0 ;`
`val it = 16.650427 : real`
- `val &@!+<% = "bizarre, no?!" ;`
`val &@!+<% = "bizarre, no?!" : string`

Identifiers

- Alphanumeric identifiers
- Symbolic identifiers
made from `+ - / * < > = ! @ # $ % ^ & ` ~ \ | ? :`
- Do not mix alphanumeric and symbolic characters
- The identifier `it` always has the result of the last unidentified expression evaluated by the interpreter
- Attention: `3 + ~ 2` is *different* from `3 + ~2`
One must separate the symbols `+` and `~` with a space, otherwise they form a new symbolic identifier

Bindings and environments

- The execution of a declaration, say **val** $x = expr$, creates a *binding*:
the identifier x is *bound* to the value of the expression $expr$
- A collection of bindings is called an *environment*
- The identifier `it` is always bound to the result of the last unidentified expression evaluated by the interpreter

Identifiers vs. variables

- **val** `sum = 24 ;`
`val sum = 24 : int`
- **val** `sum = 3.51 ;`
`val sum = 3.51 : real`
- Association of a value to an identifier
- In ML, there are only “variables” in the mathematical sense
- No assignment,
no variables (in the imperative-programming sense),
no “modification” of variables

Evaluation order

- **val** a = 1 ;
 val a = 1 : *int*
- **val** b = 2 ;
 val b = 2 : *int*
- **val** a = 1 **val** b = 2 ;
 val a = 1 : *int*
 val b = 2 : *int*
- **val** a = a+b **val** b = a+b ;
 val a = 3 : *int*
 val b = 5 : *int*

- Evaluation and declaration from left to right

- **val** a = 1 **val** b = 2 ;
 val a = 1 : *int*
 val b = 2 : *int*
- **val** a = a+b **and** b = a+b ;
 val a = 3 : *int*
 val b = 3 : *int*

1. Simultaneous evaluation of the right-hand sides of the declarations

2. Declaration of the identifiers

2.3. Function declarations

Example

```

- (* Absolute value of x *)
= fun abs( x : int ) : int =
= if x >= 0 then x else ~ x ;
  val abs = fn : int -> int

- abs(~3) ;
  val it = 3 : int

```

- The argument of a function is *typed*
- The result of a function is also typed
- $\text{int} \rightarrow \text{int}$ is the type of functions from integers to integers
- A truth-valued (or: Boolean) function is called a *predicate*

Evaluation: reduction

```

abs(3-6)
~> abs(~3)
~> if ~3 >= 0 then ~3 else ~(~3)
~> if false then ~3 else ~(~3)
~> ~(~3)
~> 3

```

The argument is always evaluated *before* applying the function: *value passing*

Usage of functions

Example

```
- fun signSquare( x : int ) : int = abs(x) * x ;
  val signSquare = fn : int -> int

- signSquare(~3) ;
  val it = ~9 : int
```

- The used function **abs** must have been declared beforehand
- Possibility of simultaneous declarations:

```
- fun signSquare( x : int ) : int = abs(x) * x
= and abs( x : int ) : int = if x >= 0 then x else ~ x ;
  val signSquare = fn : int -> int
  val abs = fn : int -> int
```

Evaluation: reduction

```
signSquare(3—6)
~> signSquare(~3)
~> abs(~3) * ~3
~> (if ~3 >= 0 then ~3 else ~(~3)) * ~3
~> (if false then ~3 else ~(~3)) * ~3
~> ~(~3) * ~3
~> 3 * ~3
~> ~9
```

2.4. Type inference

In ML, it is often unnecessary to explicitly indicate the type of the argument and result:
their types are *inferred* by the ML interpreter!

Example

```
- fun abs( x ) =  
=   if x >= 0 then x else ~ x ;  
   val abs = fn : int -> int
```

From $x \geq 0$, the ML interpreter infers that x must necessarily be of type `int` because the type `int` of `0` is recognised from the syntax; hence the result of `abs` must be of type `int`

If a type cannot be inferred from the context, then the default is that an overloaded operator symbol refers to the function on integers

Example

```
- fun square( x ) = x * x ;
  val square = fn : int -> int
```

It is necessary to give enough clues for the type inference: it is better to give too many clues than not enough!

```
- fun square( x : real ) = x * x ;
  val square = fn : real -> real
```

```
- fun square( x ) : real = x * x ;
  val square = fn : real -> real
```

```
- fun square( x ) = x * x : real ;
  val square = fn : real -> real
```

```
- fun square( x ) = ( x : real ) * x ;
  val square = fn : real -> real
```

```
- fun square( x ) = x : real * x ;
  ! fun square( x ) = x : real * x;
  !
  ! Unbound type constructor: x
```

The operator ‘ : ’ has a lower precedence than ‘ * ’, so `x : real * x` is interpreted as `x : (real * x)`

When using the overloaded operators (+, *, <, ...), it is often necessary to indicate the types of the operands

2.5. Anonymous functions

Just like integers and reals, functions are objects!

One can declare and use a function without naming it:

- **fun** double(x) = 2 * x ;
 val double = fn : int -> int
- **val** double = **fn** x => 2 * x ;
 val double = fn : int -> int
- double ;
 val it = fn : int -> int
- double(3) ;
 val it = 6 : int
- **fn** x => 2 * x ;
 val it = fn : int -> int
- (**fn** x => 2 * x)(3) ;
 val it = 6 : int

The forms **fun** *Name Arg = Def*
and **val** *Name = fn Arg => Def*
are equivalent!

Usefulness of anonymous functions

- For higher-order functions (with functional arguments)
- Understanding the reduction of the application of a function

Reduction

```
double(3) + 4
  ~> (fn x => 2 * x)(3) + 4
  ~> (2 * 3) + 4
  ~> 6 + 4
  ~> 10
```

- Function application has precedence 8
- The argument can follow the function name *without* being between parentheses!

Principles

Reduction of $E_1 E_2$

1. Reduction of the expression E_1 : $E_1 \rightsquigarrow \dots \rightsquigarrow N_1$
 N_1 must be of the form **fn** $Arg \Rightarrow Def$
2. Reduction of the expression E_2 : $E_2 \rightsquigarrow \dots \rightsquigarrow N_2$
3. Application of N_1 to N_2 :
 replacement in Def of all occurrences of Arg by N_2
4. Reduction of the result of the application

2.6. Specifications

How to specify an ML function?

- *Function name and argument*
- *Type* of the function: types of the argument and result
- *Pre-condition* on the argument:
 - If the pre-condition does not hold, then the function *may* return *any* result!
 - If the pre-condition does hold, then the function *must* return a result satisfying the post-condition!
- *Post-condition* on the result: its description and meaning
- *Side effects* (if any): printing of the result, ...
- *Examples and counter-examples* (if useful)

Example

function sum n

TYPE: int \rightarrow int

PRE: $n \geq 0$

POST: $\sum_{0 \leq i \leq n} i$

Beware

- The post-condition and side effects *should* involve *all* the components of the argument

Role of well-chosen examples and counter-examples

In theory:

- They are redundant with the pre/post-conditions

In practice:

- They often provide an intuitive understanding that no assertion or definition could achieve
- They often help eliminate risks of ambiguity in the pre/post-conditions by illustrating delicate issues
- If they contradict the pre/post-conditions, then we know that something is wrong somewhere!

Example

function floor n

TYPE: real \rightarrow int

PRE: (none)

POST: the largest integer m such that $m \leq n$

EXAMPLES: floor(23.65) = 23, floor(\sim 23.65) = \sim 24

COUNTER-EXAMPLE: floor(\sim 23.65) \neq \sim 23

2.7. Tuples and records

Tuples

- Group n values of possibly different types into n -tuples by enclosing them in parentheses, say: `(22>5, "abc", 123)`
- Particular cases of n -tuples: pairs (or: couples), triples, ...
- Careful: There are *no* 1-tuples in ML!

Example

- `(2.3, 5) ;`
`val it = (2.3, 5) : real * int`
- Operator `*` here means the Cartesian product of types
- Selector `#i` returns the i^{th} component of a tuple
- It is possible to have tuples of tuples
- The value `()` is the only 0-tuple, and it has type **unit**
- The expression `(e)` is equivalent to `e`, hence *not* a 1-tuple!
 Example: `sum(n)` can also be written as `sum n`
- `val bigTuple = ((2.3, 5), "two", (8, true)) ;`
`val bigTuple = ((2.3, 5), "two", (8, true)) :`
`(real * int) * string * (int * bool)`
- `#3 bigTuple ;`
`val it = (8, true) : int * bool`
- `#2(#1 bigTuple) + #1(#3 bigTuple) ;`
`val it = 13 : int`

Records

- A *record* is a generalised tuple where each component is identified by a *label* rather than by its integer position, and where curly braces are used instead of parentheses
- A record component is also called a *field*

Example

- `{course = "FP", year = 2} ;`
`val it = {course = "FP", year = 2} :`
`{course : string, year : int}`
- Selector `#label` returns the value of the component identified by *label*
- It is possible to have records of records
- *n*-tuples are just records with integer labels (when *n* ≠ 1)
- `#a {a=1, b="xyz"} ;`
`val it = 1 : int`
- `{a=1, b="xyz"} = {b="xyz", a=1} ;`
`val it = true : bool`
- `(1, "xyz") = ("xyz", 1) ;`
`! (1, "xyz") = ("xyz", 1) ;`
`! ^^^^^`
`! Type clash: expression of type string`
`! cannot have type int`
- `{1=1, 2="xyz"} = (1, "xyz") ;`
`val it = true : bool`

2.8. Functions with several arguments/results

In ML, a function always has:

- a unique argument
- a unique result

“Multiple-argument” functions

```
- fun max (a,b) = if a > b then a else b ;  
  val max = fn : int * int -> int
```

The function `max` has *one* argument, which is a pair

“Multiple-result” functions (`divCheck.sml`)

```
- fun divCheck (a,b) =  
=   if b = 0 then (0, true, "division by 0")  
=   else (a div b, false, "");  
  val divCheck = fn : int * int -> int * bool * string  
  
- divCheck (3,0) ;  
  val it = (0, true, "division by 0") :  
          int * bool * string
```

The function `divCheck` has *one* result, which is a triple

Functions “without arguments or results”

The basic type **unit** allows us to “simulate” functions that have no arguments or no results

- **fun** const10 () = 10 ;
 val const10 = *fn* : *unit* -> *int*
- const10 () ;
 val it = 10 : *int*
- const10 ;
 val it = *fn* : *unit* -> *int*
- **fun** useless (n:int) = () ;
 val useless = *fn* : *int* -> *unit*
- useless 23 ;
 val it = () : *unit*

2.9. Currying

There is equivalence of the types of the following functions:

$$f : A \times B \rightarrow C$$

$$g : A \rightarrow (B \rightarrow C)$$

H.B. Curry (1958): $f(a, b) = g a b$

Currying = passing from the first form to the second form

Let a be an object of type A , and b an object of type B

- $f(a, b)$ is an object of type C
Application of the function f to the pair (a, b)
- $g a$ is an object of type $B \rightarrow C$
 $g a$ is thus a *function*
A function is an ML object, just like an integer:
the result of a function can thus also be a function!
- $(g a) b$ is an object of type C
Application of the function $g a$ to b
- Attention: $f(a, b)$ is different from $f a b$

Principle

Every function on a Cartesian product can be curried:

$$\begin{array}{c} g : A_1 \times A_2 \times \cdots \times A_n \rightarrow C \\ \downarrow \\ g : A_1 \rightarrow (A_2 \rightarrow \cdots \rightarrow (A_n \rightarrow C)) \\ g : A_1 \rightarrow A_2 \rightarrow \cdots \rightarrow A_n \rightarrow C \end{array}$$

The symbol \rightarrow associates to the *right*

Usefulness of currying

- The rice tastes better ...
- Partial application of a function for getting other functions
- Easier design and usage of higher-order functions
(functions with functional arguments)

Example (log.sml)**function** log base xTYPE: int \rightarrow real \rightarrow real

PRE: base > 0

POST: $\log_{base} x$ **fun** log base x = Math.In x / Math.In (real base)

- log 2 12.3 ;

val it = 3.62058641045 : real- **fun** logTwo x = log 2 x ;*val logTwo = fn : real -> real*

- logTwo 16.0 ;

val it = 4.0 : real

Reduction

log 2 16.0

 \rightsquigarrow (fn base => (fn x => Math.In x / Math.In (real base))) 2 16.0 \rightsquigarrow (fn x => Math.In x / Math.In (real 2)) 16.0 \rightsquigarrow Math.In 16.0 / Math.In (real 2) \rightsquigarrow 2.77258872224 / Math.In (real 2) \rightsquigarrow 2.77258872224 / Math.In 2.0 \rightsquigarrow 2.77258872224 / 0.69314718056 \rightsquigarrow 4.0

```

logTwo 16.0
~> (fn x => log 2 x) 16.0
~> log 2 16.0
~> (fn base => (fn x => Math.ln x / Math.ln (real base))) 2 16.0
~> ...

```

The currying of `log` is irrelevant here

```

- log 2 12.3 ;
  val it = 3.62058641045 : real
- val logTwoBis = log 2 ;
  val logTwoBis = fn : real -> real
- logTwoBis 16.0 ;
  val it = 4.0 : real

```

```

log 2
~> (fn base => (fn x => Math.ln x / Math.ln (real base))) 2
~> (fn x => Math.ln x / Math.ln (real 2))

```

```

logTwoBis 16.0
~> (fn x => Math.ln x / Math.ln (real 2)) 16.0
~> Math.ln 16.0 / Math.ln (real 2)
~> ...

```

The currying of `log` is essential here

Why can `logTwoBis` not be declared with **fun** rather than **val** ?

2.10. Pattern matching and case analysis

Pattern matching

- `val x = (18, true) ;`
`val x = (18, true) : int * bool`
- `val (n, b) = (18, true) ;`
`val n = 18 : int`
`val b = true : bool`
- `val (n, _) = (18, true) ;`
`val n = 18 : int`
- `val (n, true) = x ;`
`val n = 18 : int`
- `val (n, false) = x ;`
`! Uncaught exception: Bind`
- The left-hand side of a value declaration is called a *pattern* and must contain (in this case) at least one identifier
- An identifier can occur at most once in a pattern (*linearity*)
- `val t = (("datalogi", true), 25) ;`
`val t = (("datalogi", true), 25) :`
`(string * bool) * int`
- `val (p as (name, b) , age) = t ;`
`val p = ("datalogi", true) : string * bool`
`val name = "datalogi" : string`
`val b = true : bool`
`val age = 25 : int`

Case analysis with **case of**

Example: (pinkFloyd.sml)

```
fun albumTitle num =
  case num of
    1 => "The Piper at the Gates of Dawn"
  | 2 => "A Saucerful of Secrets"
  | 3 => "More"
  | 4 => "Ummagumma"
  | 5 => "Atom Heart Mother"
  | 6 => "Meddle"
  | 7 => "Obscured By Clouds"
  | 8 => "The Dark Side of the Moon"
  | 9 => "Wish You Were Here"
  | 10 => "Animals"
  | 11 => "The Wall"
  | 12 => "The Final Cut"
  | 13 => "A Momentary Lapse of Reason"
  | 14 => "Division Bell"
- use "pinkFloyd.sml" ;
  ! Warning: pattern matching is not exhaustive
  val albumTitle = fn : int -> string
- albumTitle 9 ;
  val it = "Wish You Were Here" : string
- albumTitle 15 ;
  ! Uncaught exception: Match
```

General form:

```
case Expr of
  Pat1 => Expr1
| Pat2 => Expr2
| ...
| Patn => Exprn
```

- **case** ... **of** ... is an expression
- *Expr*₁, ..., *Expr*_{*n*} must be of the *same* type
- *Expr*, *Pat*₁, ..., *Pat*_{*n*} must be of the *same* type
- If the patterns are not exhaustive over their type, then there is an ML *warning* at the declaration
- If none of the patterns is applicable during an evaluation, then there is an ML pattern-matching *exception*
- The patterns need *not* be mutually exclusive: If several patterns are applicable, then ML selects the *first* applicable pattern
- If *Pat*_{*i*} is selected, then *only Expr*_{*i*} is evaluated
- Can **if** ... **then** ... **else** ... be expressed via **case** ... **of** ...?

```
fun sum a b =
  case a + b of
    0 => "zero"
  | 1 => "one"
  | 2 => "two"
  | n => if n<10 then "a lot" else "really a lot"
```

Case analysis with **fun**

Example: (pinkFloyd.sml)

```
fun lastAppearance "Syd Barrett" = 2
  | lastAppearance "Roger Waters" = 12
  | lastAppearance x = ~1
```

General form:

```
fun   $f$   $Pat_1$  =  $Expr_1$ 
  |    $f$   $Pat_2$  =  $Expr_2$ 
  |   ...
  |    $f$   $Pat_n$  =  $Expr_n$ 
```

Case analysis with **fn**

General form:

```
fn   $Pat_1$  =>  $Expr_1$ 
  |    $Pat_2$  =>  $Expr_2$ 
  |   ...
  |    $Pat_n$  =>  $Expr_n$ 
```

Show that

if $BExpr$ **then** $Expr_1$ **else** $Expr_2$

is equivalent to

(**fn** true => $Expr_1$ | false => $Expr_2$) ($BExpr$)

2.11. Local declarations

Local declarations in an expression

function fraction (n,d)

TYPE: int * int \rightarrow int * int

PRE: d \neq 0

POST: (n', d') such that $\frac{n'}{d'}$ is an irreducible fraction equal to $\frac{n}{d}$

Without a local declaration:

fun fraction (n,d) =

(n **div** gcd (n,d) , d **div** gcd (n,d))

Recomputation of the greatest common divisor gcd (n,d)

With a local declaration: (fraction.sml)

fun fraction (n,d) =

let val k = gcd (n,d)

in

(n **div** k , d **div** k)

end

Notice that the identifier k is *local* to the expression after **in** :

- Its binding exists only during the evaluation of this expression
- All other declarations of k are hidden during the evaluation of this expression

Another example:

Computation of the price of a sheet of length **long** and width **wide**, at the cost of **unitPrice** per square meter.

A discount of 5% is offered for every sheet

whose price exceeds 250 euros: (`discount.sml`)

```
fun discount unitPrice (long,wide) =  
  let val price = long * wide * unitPrice  
  in  
    if price < 250.0 then price  
    else price * 0.95  
  end
```

- No recomputations
- Sharing of intermediate values

A last example:

Local *function* declaration in an expression: (`leapYear.sml`)

```
fun leapYear year =  
  let fun isDivisible (a,b) = (a mod b) = 0  
  in  
    isDivisible (year,4) andalso  
    (not (isDivisible (year,100))) orelse isDivisible (year,400))  
  end
```

Local declarations in a declaration

Another form for the function `leapYear`: (`leapYear.sml`)

local

```
  fun isDivisible (a,b) = (a mod b) = 0
```

in

```
fun leapYear2 year =
```

```
  isDivisible (year,4) andalso
```

```
  (not (isDivisible (year,100)) orelse isDivisible (year,400))
```

end

- The function `isDivisible` is *local* to the function `leapYear2`
- Better *modularity*:
It is irrelevant whether `isDivisible` already exists or not

Differences between the two kinds of local declaration

- **local Declarations in Declarations end**
 - Local to one or more *declarations*
 - Clearer structure, less nesting
 - Impossible confusion between the names of the arguments
 - Impossible usage in the local declaration of the values of the arguments of the principal function
- **let Declarations in Expression end**
 - Local to an *expression*
 - More nested structure
 - Possible confusion between the names of the arguments
 - Possible usage in the local declaration of the values of the arguments of the principal function

2.12. New operators

Declaration of a new infix operator

It is possible to declare new infix operators:

```
- fun xor (p, q) =
=   (p orelse q) andalso not (p andalso q) ;
   val xor = fn : bool * bool -> bool
-   xor (true, true) ;
   val it = false : bool
```

To write **true xor true**, give the following *directive*:

- ```
- infix 2 xor ;
- true xor true ;
 val it = false : bool
```
- **infix**  $n id$ , where  $n$  is the precedence level of operator  $id$
  - Association to the left by default
  - Association to the right with **infixr**  $n id$
  - Possibility to return to the prefix form with **nonfix**  $id$

### *Using an infix operator as a prefix function*

```
- (op xor) (true, true) ;
 val it = false : bool
- (op +) (3, 4) ;
 val it = 7 : int
```

## 2.13. Recursive functions

### Example: Factorial

#### *Specification*

**function** fact n

TYPE: int  $\rightarrow$  int

PRE:  $n \geq 0$

POST:  $n!$

#### *Construction*

Error case:  $n < 0$  : produce an error message

Base case:  $n = 0$  : the result is 1

General case:  $n > 0$  : the result is  $n * \text{fact } (n-1)$

#### *ML program* (fact.sml)

**fun** fact n =

**if** n < 0 **then** error "fact: negative argument"

**else if** n = 0 **then** 1

**else** n \* fact (n-1)

**val rec** fact = **fn** n =>

**if** n < 0 **then** error "fact: negative argument"

**else if** n = 0 **then** 1

**else** n \* fact (n-1)



## 2.14. Side effects

Like most functional languages,  
ML has some functions with side effects:

- Input / output
- Variables (in the imperative-programming sense)
- Explicit references
- Tables (in the imperative-programming sense)
- Imperative-programming-style control structures (sequence, iteration, ...)

In these lectures:

Limitation to the printing of results and the loading of files

### *The **print** function*

Type: **print** string  $\rightarrow$  unit

Side effect: The argument of **print** is printed on the screen

### *Example*

```
- fun welcome msg = print (msg ^ "\n") ;
 val welcome = fn : string -> unit

- welcome "hello" ;
 hello
 val it = () : unit
```

## *Sequential composition*

Sequential composition is necessary when, for example, one wants to print intermediate results: (`relError.sml`)

```
fun relError a b =
 let val diff = abs (a-b)
 in
 (print (Real.toString diff) ;
 print "\n" ;
 diff / a)
 end
```

- Sequential composition is an *expression* of the form

$$( Expr_1 ; Expr_2 ; \dots ; Expr_n )$$

- The value of this expression is the value of  $Expr_n$

## *The **use** function*

Loading and evaluation of the content of a file named  $f$  with ML expressions: via **use** " $f$ " ;

This allows the declaration of functions in a file

This function is primarily used in *interactive mode*

## 2.15. Exception declarations

Execution can be interrupted immediately upon an error

*Example*

```
exception errorDiv
fun safeDiv a b =
 if b = 0 then raise errorDiv
 else a div b
```

```
- 45 * (safeDiv 23 0) + 12 ;
```

```
Uncaught exception: errorDiv
```

*Error function (error.sml)*

In these lectures, to simplify matters,  
we will use a single function for treating all errors:

```
function error msg
TYPE: string → (to be completed later)
SIDE-EFFECT: displays msg to the screen and halts the execution
```

```
exception StopError
fun error (msg:string) =
 (print msg ; print "\n" ; raise StopError)
```

## Examples

```
(safeDiv.sml)
```

```
fun safeDiv a b =
 if b=0 then error "safeDiv: division by 0"
 else a div b
```

```
- 45 * (safeDiv 23 0) + 12 ;
safeDiv: division by 0
Uncaught exception: StopError
```

```
(log.sml)
```

```
fun logBis base x =
 if base <= 0 then error "logBis: non-positive base"
 else Math.In x / Math.In (real base)
```

```
- logBis ~2 12.3 ;
logBis: non-positive base
Uncaught exception: StopError

- val logTwo = logBis ~2 ;
val logTwo = fn : real -> real

- logTwo 16.0 ;
logBis: non-positive base
Uncaught exception: StopError
```

Use an anonymous function to directly verify the base  
(log.sml) :

```
fun logTer base =
 if base <= 0 then error "logTer: non-positive base"
 else fn x => Math.In x / Math.In (real base)
```

```
- val logTwo = logTer ~2 ;
 logTer: non-positive base
 Uncaught exception: StopError
```

- What is the type of function logTer?
- Reduce the expression logTer 2 16.0

## 2.16. Functional languages vs. imperative languages

*Example: greatest common divisor of natural numbers*

We know from Euclid that:

$$\begin{aligned} \gcd(0, n) &= n && \text{if } n > 0 \\ \gcd(m, n) &= \gcd(n \bmod m, m) && \text{if } m > 0 \end{aligned}$$

*Pascal program*

```

function gcd(m, n : integer) : integer;
{# PRE: m, n ≥ 0 and m + n > 0
 POST: gcd = the greatest common divisor of m, n #}
var a, b, prevA : integer ;
begin
 a := m ; b := n ;
 {# INVARIANT: gcd(m,n) = gcd(a,b) #}
 while a <> 0 do
 begin
 prevA := a ;
 a := a mod b ;
 b := prevA
 end ;
 gcd := b
end

```

## *Features of imperative programs*

- Close to the hardware
  - Sequence of instructions
  - Modification of variables (memory cells)
  - Test of variables (memory cells)
  - Transformation of states (automata)
- Construction of programs
  - Describe what has to be computed
  - Organise the sequence of computations into steps
  - Organise the variables
- Correctness
  - Specifications by pre/post-conditions
  - Loop invariants
  - Symbolic execution
- Expressions

$f(z) + x / 2$  can be different from  $x / 2 + f(z)$   
namely when  $f$  modifies the value of  $x$  (by side effect)
- Variables

The assignment  $x := x + 1$   
modifies a memory cell as a side effect

## Specification

**function** gcd (m, n)

TYPE:  $\text{int} * \text{int} \rightarrow \text{int}$

PRE:  $m, n \geq 0$  and  $m + n > 0$

POST: the greatest common divisor of m, n

*ML program* (gcd.sm1)

```
fun gcd1 (m, n) =
```

```
 if m = 0 then n
```

```
 else gcd1 (n mod m, m)
```

```
fun gcd2 (0, n) = n
```

```
 | gcd2 (m, n) = gcd2 (n mod m, m)
```

## Features of functional programs

- Execution by evaluation of expressions
- Basic tools: expressions and recursion
- Handling of *values* (rather than states)
- The expression  $e_1 + e_2$  *always* has the same value as  $e_2 + e_1$
- Identifiers
  - Value via a *declaration*
  - No assignment, no “modification”
- Recursion: series of values from recursive calls