

# Expressions, commands and data types

Programmazione Funzionale

2024/2025

Università di Trento

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# Agenda

1.

2.

3.

## Today

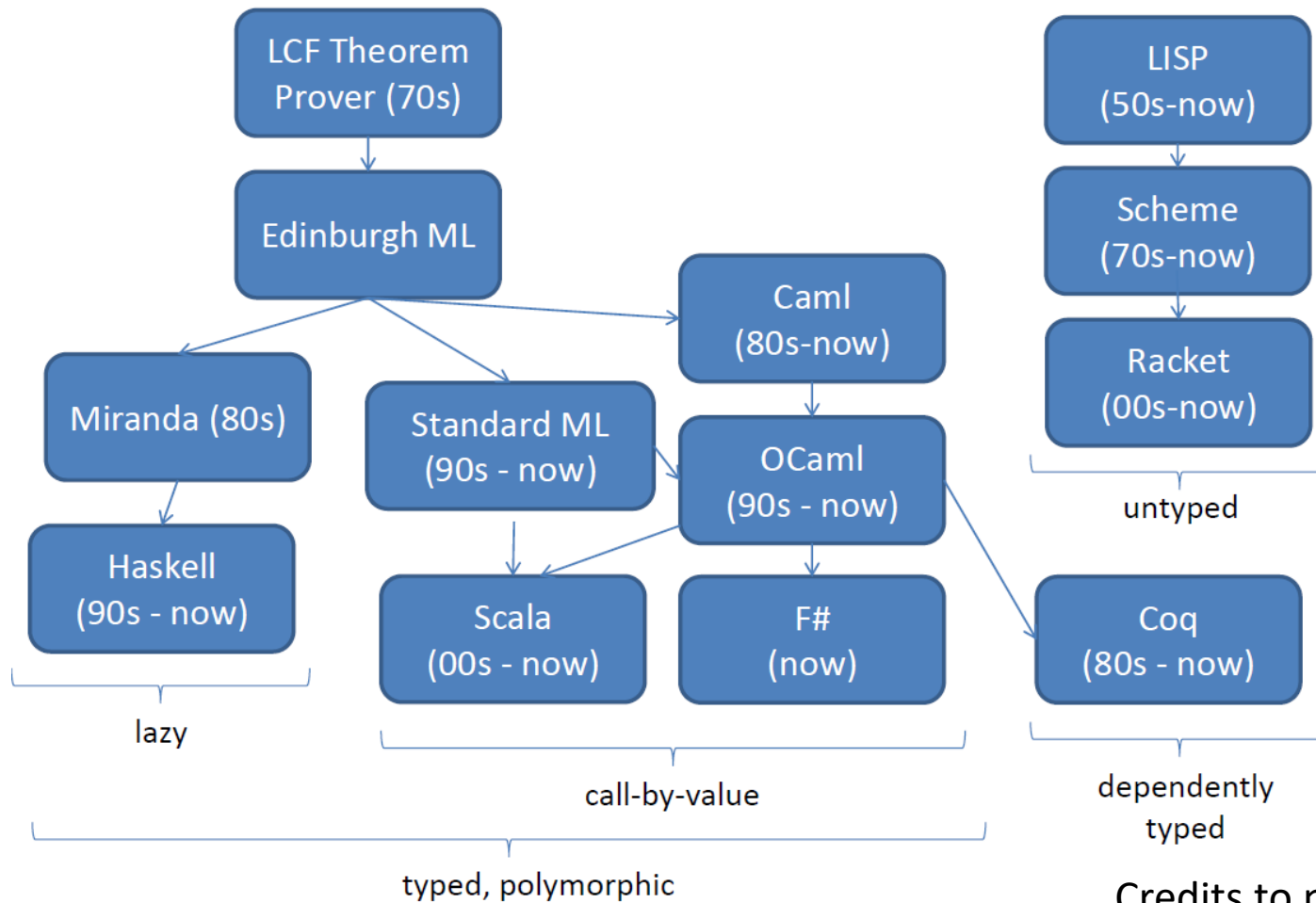
- Introduction to ML
- Expressions and commands
- Data types and type systems
- Expressions, types and operators in ML



*Introduction  
to ML*

# Introduction to ML

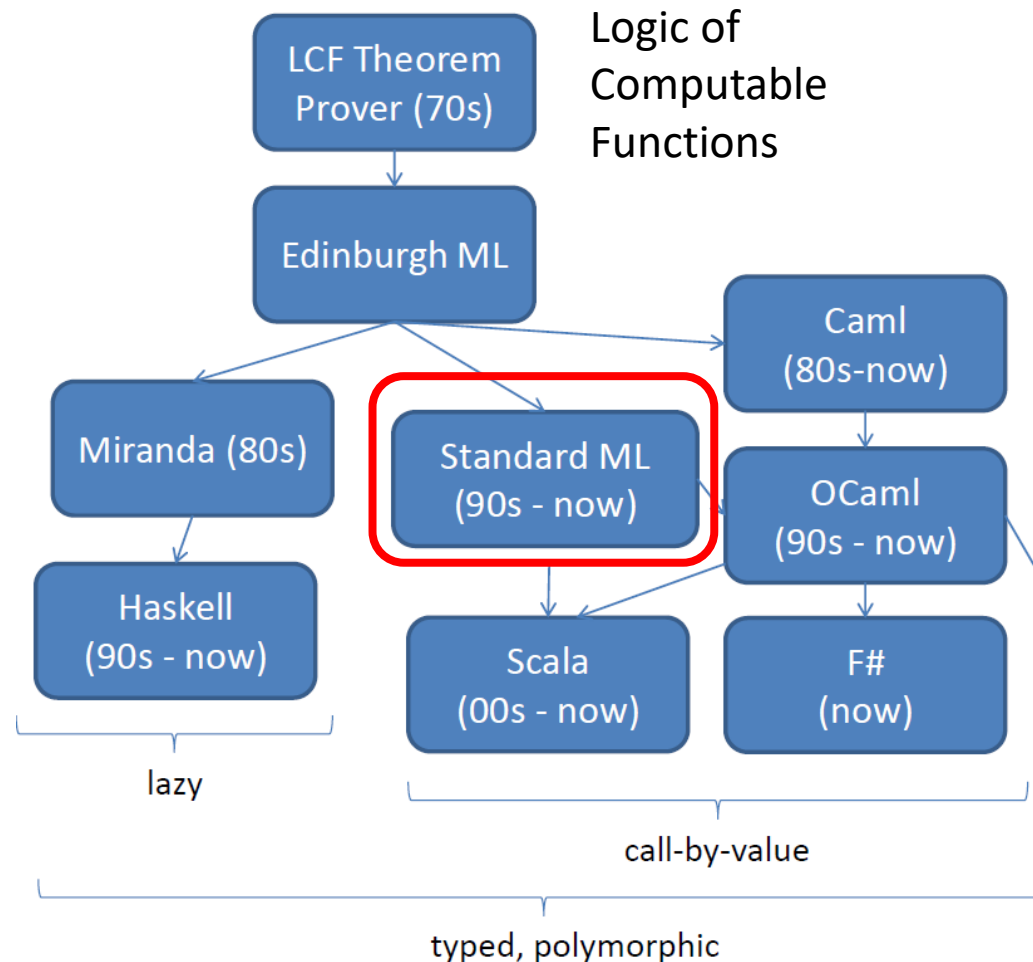
# Families



Credits to prof. David Walker

# The ML (Meta Language) Programming Language

- General purpose programming language
- It is a meta language for verification purposes
- Different dialects



# Standard ML



Robin Milner, Mads Tofte, & Robert Harper  
Standard ML  
1980's

# Why studying ML?

- Functional Programming will make you think differently about programming
  - Mainstream languages are all about states
  - Functional programming is about values
- ML is a practical (small) Programming Language
- New ideas can help make you a better programmer in any language

# ML main FP characteristics

## 1. ML is a **functional** language:

- Basic mode of computation: definition and application of functions
- Functions can be considered as code
- But they can also be considered as values, i.e., as parameters of other functions
- Higher-order functions
  - Functions that take functions as values are supported
  - Other languages like C usually only have limited support for this



# ML main FP characteristics

## 2. Recursion

- Strongly encouraged in ML in preference for while-loops
- Can be implemented efficiently
- Iterative constructs are available in ML, when more appropriate

## 3. Rule-based programming

- If-then-else rules implemented via **pattern matching**

# ML main FP characteristics

## 4. No side effects

- Computation is by evaluation of expressions, not by assigning values to variables
- In C,  $a=b+c$  modifies the value of  $a$  (side effect)
- In ML,  $b+c$  creates a new element associated with the result
- If needed, side effects are allowed (printing output), but are not the main means of computation

# ML characteristics

## 5. Strong typing

- All values and variables have types that can be determined at "compile-time"
- 4 value of integer type, 4.0 value of real type
- Valuable debugging aid
- Variable declarations usually not needed

# ML characteristics

## 6. Polymorphism

- A function can have arguments of different types
- In C, we may have to create different programs for sorting arrays of strings or reals
- In ML we can define one program that work for any type

## 7. Abstract Data Types (Structures)

- Elegant type system
- Ability to construct new types

# Running ML

- Three ways:

- Command line poly/interface poly

- In order to enter through command line type `poly`
    - We see `>` once we are inside the Poly environment

- If `foo` is a file name, there are two options

- `poly < foo`

- `use "foo";` (inside the Poly environment)

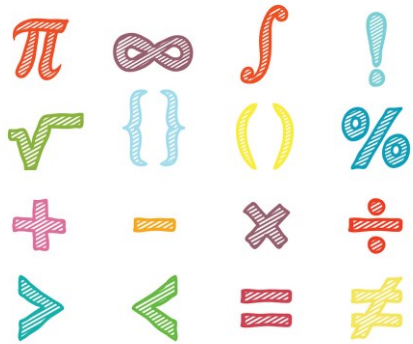
- Inside the Poly environment

- To quit: CTRL+D
  - To interrupt: CTRL+C

# Rlwrap poly

In Linux you can find the command “**rlwrap poly**” that allows you to freely move the cursor within the shell and to enable the history of the commands recently used within the shell environment.

# Expressions and commands



© CanStockPhoto.com

What is the  
difference  
between  
expressions  
and  
commands?





# Expressions

- Syntactic entities whose evaluation either produces a value or does not terminate (undefined expression)
- Usually composed of:
  - A single entity (constant, variable)
  - An operator applied to a number of arguments (which are also expressions)
- Three notational systems:
  - Infix:  $a + b$   
brackets and precedence rules to avoid ambiguity
  - Prefix (Polish):  $+ a b$
  - Suffix (reverse Polish):  $a b +$   
If arity of operators is known –no need of parenthesis and precedence rules

# Expression evaluation

- Two evaluation strategies:
  - **eager** evaluation: first evaluating all the operands and then applying the operator to the values
  - **lazy** evaluation: operands are evaluated only when needed
- Lazy evaluation could solve the problem of undefined operators

```
a == 0 ? b : b/a
```

This expression in C demands for lazy evaluation because  $b/a$  would be evaluated even when  $a$  is equal to 0

# Short-circuit evaluation

- Lazy evaluation of boolean expressions is often called **short-circuit evaluation**
- We arrive at the final value before knowing the value of all of the operands.

```
a == 0 || b/a > 2
```

This expression in C with lazy/ short-circuit evaluation has value true

With eager evaluation, we may get an error

- In ML  $\rightarrow$  eager evaluation except for some constructs `andalso`, `orelse` and `if-then-else` that use the lazy evaluation

# Commands

- **Command**: a syntactic entity whose evaluation does not necessarily return a value but can have a side effect
- Commands
  - Typical of the imperative paradigm
  - Not present in the functional and logical paradigms
  - In some cases yield a result (e.g., an assignment in C)
- The purpose of a command is the modification of the **state**

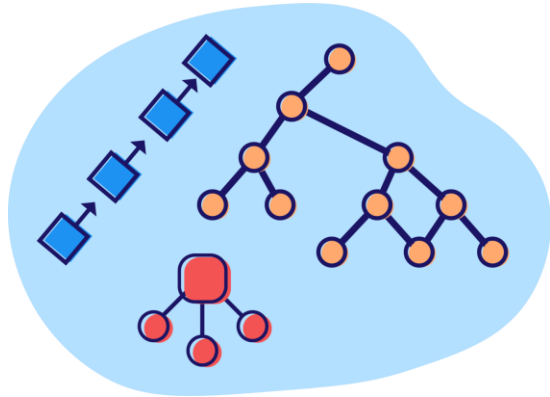
# Side effects

- **Side effect**: any change in the system state that occurs outside the immediate (local) context of the computation
- In imperative languages expression evaluation can modify the value of variables

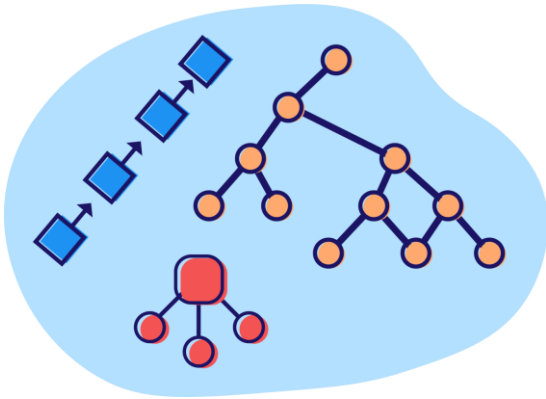
$(a + f(b)) * (c + f(b))$

if  $f$  modifies the value of its operand  
as side effect, the result of the first call  
to  $f$  may differ from the second

- Languages follow various approaches:
  - **Pure declarative**: do not allow side effects
  - Others: forbid the use in expressions of functions that cause side effects
  - Others (e.g., Java): specifies the order of evaluation, from left to right



# Data types and type systems



# Data types

# Data types

- **Data type**: a collection of values (**homogeneous** and **effectively described**) together with a **set of operators** on these values
- What a type is depends on the specific programming language



# What are types used for?

- Design level (conceptual level)
  - organize the information
- Program level (correctness)
  - identify and avoid errors
- Implementation level
  - permit certain optimizations

# Conceptual organization

- Different types for different concepts (e.g., price and room)
- Design and documentation purposes
  - “Comments” for the intended use of identifiers but effectively controllable

# Correctness

- Types (differently from comments) can be automatically verified
- Every programming language has its own type-checking rules
  - `x:=exp` they need to have compatible types
  - `3+"pippo"` forbidden
  - Call to an object that is not a function or procedure forbidden
- Violation of a type constraint is a possible semantic error (minimal correctness)
- Type checker of the compiler: type constraints must be satisfied before the execution of a program
- Sometimes type rules even too restrictive
  - A subprogram that sorts a vector: it could require different implementations for integers, characters, ...

# Implementation

- Sources of information
  - Amount of memory to be allocated
    - A Boolean needs fewer bits than a real
    - Precalculate the offset for a record/struct

```
struct Professor{  
    char Name[20];  
    int Course_code;  
}
```

Knowing the type allows us to access `p.Course_code`, through the offsets from the start address of `p` in memory



# Type systems

# Type systems

- The type system of a language:
  1. Predefined types
  2. Mechanisms to define new types
  3. Control mechanisms
    - Equivalence
    - Compatibility
    - Inference
  4. specification of whether types are statically or dynamically checked

# Simple and composite types

- **Simple (or scalar) types**: types whose values are not composed of aggregations of other values
- **Composite types**: obtained by combining other types using appropriate constructors, e.g., records, vectors, sets, pointers
- We define new types for example with

```
type newtype = expression;
```

# Static and dynamic type checking

## Static type checking

- At compilation time (C, Java, Haskell, ML)
- **Pros**
  - At compilation time, before going to the user
  - It is efficient at runtime
- **Cons**
  - Design is more complex
  - Compilation takes longer
  - More conservative: static type errors are not runtime errors

```
int x;  
if (0==1) x="pippo";
```

## Dynamic type checking

- During code execution (Python, Javascript, Scheme)
- **Pros**
  - it locates type errors
- **Cons**
  - It is not efficient
  - The type error is identified only at runtime with the user



# Strongly and weakly typed languages

## Strongly typed

- informally, languages that are strict about types
- the type of a value does not change in an unexpected way (e.g., implicit type conversions are not allowed)

### ML

```
> 4+"2";
```

```
poly: : error: Type error in function application.
```

```
Function: + : int * int -> int
```

```
Argument: (4, "2") : int * string
```

```
Reason:
```

```
Can't unify int (*In Basis*) with string (*In Basis*)  
(Different type constructors)
```

```
Found near 4 + "2"
```

```
Static Errors
```

## Weakly typed

- informally, languages that are more relaxed about types
- the type of a value can change in an unexpected way (e.g., implicit conversions are allowed)

### Javascript

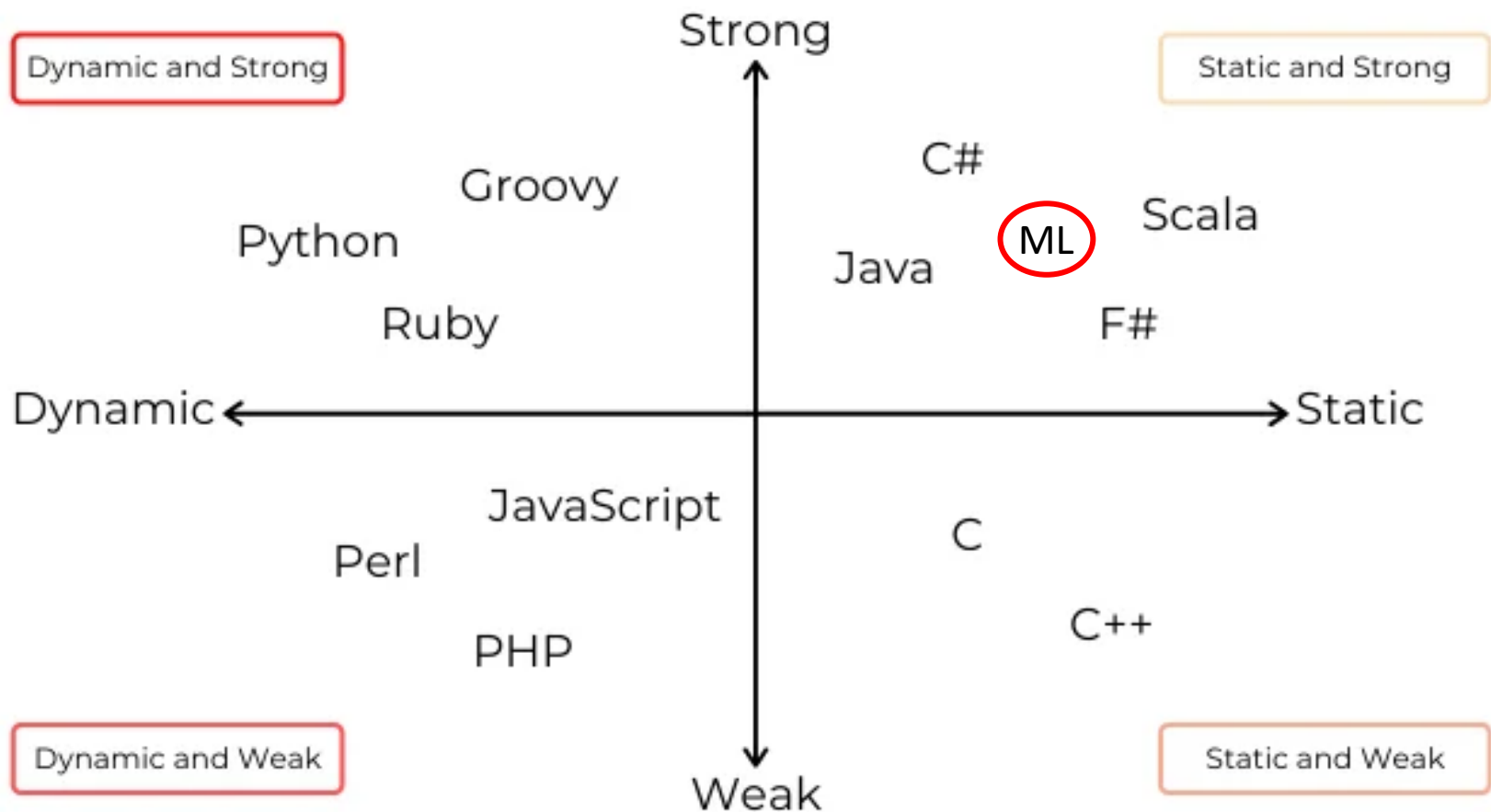
```
4 + '2'
```

```
> '42'
```

### Php

```
<?php $str = "candies";  
$str = $str + 10;  
echo ($str); ?>  
> 10
```

# Strong, weak, dynamic and static



Strong typing is an aspect of type safety

# Type safety

- A type system is **type safe** if
  - no program can have undetected errors deriving from type errors
- Type safety features ensure that the code does not perform any invalid operation on the underlying object
  - type error checking can be carried out at compile time or at runtime
- A strongly typed language has a high degree of type safety

# C, C++ are type unsafe

- For instance, C and C++ do their best for accommodating casting from one type to another.

```
void func(char* char_ptr) {  
    double* d_ptr = (double*) char_ptr;  
    (*d_ptr) = 5.0;  
    cout << "Value of pointer after cast in func(): " << *d_ptr <<  
endl; }
```

- The program will claim memory for a double rather than for a char.
- Similarly when allowing the programmer having control over memory allocations

```
int buf[4];  
buf[5] = 3; /* overwrites memory */
```



+

*div*

$x * 4$

$2^3$

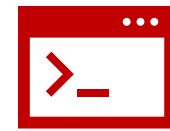
$\geq$

$a + b + c$

*type int*

*mod*

# Expressions, types and operators in ML



$x * 4$

$2 + 3$

$a + b + c$

`type int`

# Expressions and types in ML

# Expressions

- Basic notion in a functional language
- Expressions can be values or functions applied to values (to be evaluated)
- Functions and values have types
- ML uses “**eager evaluation**”: first, evaluate the arguments of a function, then the function itself
  - Except for few constructs (e.g., `andalso`, `orelse` and `if then else`)

# Example of expressions

> 1+2\*3;

Any expression  
ends with ;

val it = 7: int

- `val`: value of the expression (7)
- `it`: name of the result
- `int`: type (**inferred automatically**) of the result



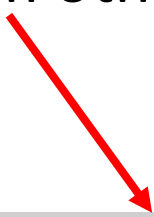
# Types

- Basic types

`int`, `real`, `bool`, `char`, `string`, `unit`

- `int`: Integers, positive and negative. Note that `~3` is `-3`. This is actually an operator, that negates the integer.
- `unit`: Single value `()`, used for expressions that do not return a value

- Complex types: constructed starting from other types

A red arrow points from the text "Complex types: constructed starting from other types" to the following text box.

We will see complex  
types in ML in the next  
lecture

# Integers

- Integers

- Positive integers, e.g.: 0, 1234
- Negative integers, e.g.: ~1234 (not -1234)
- Hexadecimals

```
> 0x124;
```

```
val it = 292: int
```

```
> ~0x124;
```

```
val it = ~292: int
```

# Reals

- Reals
  - One of more digits
  - At least one of
    - Decimal point and more digits
    - The letter E or e, and one or more digits
- Examples

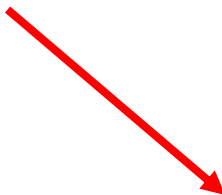
```
> ~123.0;
val it = ~123.0: real
> 3E~3;
val it = 0.003: real
> 3.14e12;
val it = 3.14E12: real
```

# Booleans

- Booleans
  - true and false (only lower-case)

- Examples

```
> true;  
val it = true: bool  
  
> 1=3;  
val it = false: bool
```



Remember that keywords have to  
be written with the correct case  
... ML is case sensitive

# Characters

- Single character `"a"`  
    `> "a";`  
    `val it = "a": char`

# Strings

- Double quotes "foo"

```
>"foo";
```

```
val it = "foo": string
```

- Special characters for strings
  - `\n`: newline
  - `\t`: tab
  - `\\`: Backslash
  - `\"`: Double-quote
  - `\xyz`: ASCII character with this code (three digits)



$\wedge$   
+  
*div*     $\geq$   
\*  
*mod*

# Operators in ML

# Arithmetic operators

- Arithmetic operators
  - `+` and `-`
  - `*`, `/` (division of reals), `div` (division of integers, rounding down), `mod` (remainder of integer division)
  - `~` unary minus
- Usual precedence rules (from left to right): expressions in brackets, unary operators, product and division, addition and subtraction

```
> 3.0 - 4.5 + 6.7;
```

```
val it = 5.2: real
```

```
> 3 - 4 * 2;
```

```
val it = ~5: int
```

```
> 43 div (8 mod 3) * 5;
```

```
val it = 105: int
```

```
> 3 + 4.0;
```

```
poly: : error: Type error in function application.  
Function: + : int * int -> int
```

```
Argument: (3, 4.0) : int * real
```

```
Reason: Can't unify int (*In Basis*) with real (*In Basis*)
```

```
(Different type constructors)
```

```
Found near 3 + 4.0 Static Errors
```

We will be back  
to this later



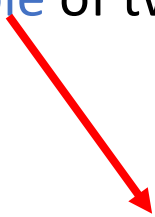
# Infix operators

- Note the line

Function: `+` : `int * int -> int`

- Operators in ML are prefix form `+(1,2)` with infix notation allowed for some operators for convenience
- `+` has only one argument and this argument is a **tuple** of two numbers

```
> (1,2);  
val it = (1, 2): int * int  
> (1.0,2.0);  
val it = (1.0, 2.0): real * real  
> (1,2.0);  
val it = (1, 2.0): int * real
```



We will see  
tuples in the next  
lecture

- In the ML type system, `*` is used for **tuples**

# String operators

- $\wedge$ : Concatenation

- Example

```
> "house" ^ "cat";  
val it = "housecat": string  
> "house" ^ "";  
val it = "house": string
```

# Comparisons

- =, <, >, <=, >=, <>
- Can be used to compare integers, reals, characters, strings (lexicographical order), but:
  - Equality (and non-equality) comparisons of reals is not allowed

# Examples


```
> 1 < 2;
val it = true: bool
> 1.0 < 2.0;
val it = true: bool
> 1 = 2;
val it = false: bool
> 1.0 = 2.0;
poly: : error: Type error in function application.
Function: = : ''a * ''a -> bool
Argument: (1.0, 2.0) : real * real
Reason: Can't unify ''a to real (Requires equality type)
Found near 1.0 = 2.0
```

We will be back  
to this later on



# Examples

```
> #"Z" < #"a";  
val it = true: bool  
> "abc" <= "ab";  
val it = false: bool  
> "abc" <= "acc";  
val it = true: bool
```

A red arrow points from the code example `"abc" <= "ab";` to the text box.

Lexicographical order: strings are compared lexicographically and, in case of the same prefix (e.g., “abc” and “ab”), the shorter string “precedes” the longer one.

# Logical operations

- Operations on booleans:

- `not`
- `andalso`: if the first operand is `false`, then it will even not evaluate the second operator
- `orelse`: if the first operand is `true`, then it will even not evaluate the second operator

Lazy  
evaluation

- Examples

```
> 1<2 andalso 3>4;  
val it = false: bool  
> 1<2 orelse 3>4;  
val it = true: bool
```

- Take care of [the precedence rules](#): `not` precedence over the others, `andalso` precedence over `orelse`

```
> not 1<2;  
poly: : error: Type error in function application.  
Function: < : 'a * 'a -> bool  
Argument: (not 1, 2) : bool * 'a  
> not (1<2);  
val it = false: bool
```

# If-then-else

- Syntax

```
if <p> then <exp1> else <exp2>;
```

- This (like everything in ML) is an **expression**.

Therefore

- **else is required**

- Both parts must have values and the resulting expression a well-defined type

- Example

```
> if 1<2 then 3+4 else 5+6;
```

```
val it = 7: int
```

# Examples

```
> if 5<6 then 5 else 6;  
val it = 5: int
```

```
> if 5<6 then 5;  
poly: : error: else expected but ; was found  
poly: : error: Expression expected but ; was found  
Static Errors
```

Both then and else  
parts should be there

```
> if 5<6 then 5 else 6.0;  
poly: : error: Type mismatch between then-part and else-part.  
  Then: 5 : int  
  Else: 6.0 : real  
  Reason: Can't unify int to real (Incompatible overloadings)  
Found near if 5 < 6 then 5 else 6.0  
Static Errors
```

Well-defined type  
required



# What happens if ... (without trying it 😊)

- we ask for  
    `> 1;`  
    `val it = 1: int`
- we ask for  
    `> 1=8;`  
    `val it = false: bool`
- we ask for  
    `> 1.0;`  
    `val it = 1.0: real`



# Some more ... without trying it 😊

## How to participate?



1

Go to [wooclap.com](https://wooclap.com)

2

Enter the event code in the top banner

Event code

**BTYJOH**

# Type systems

- The type system of a language:
  1. Predefined types
  2. Mechanisms to define new types
  3. Control mechanisms
    - Equivalence
    - Compatibility
    - Inference
  4. specification of whether types are statically or dynamically checked



# Rules on type correctness



Type  
equivalence

# Type equivalence

- Two types  $T$  and  $S$  are **equivalent** if every object of type  $T$  is also of type  $S$ , and vice versa
- Two rules for type equivalence
  - **Equivalence by name**: the definition of a type is opaque
  - **Structural equivalence**: the definition is transparent

# Equivalence by name

- Two types are equivalent if **they have the same name**

- Used Java
- Too restrictive
- None of the four

```
type T1 = 1..10;  
type T2 = 1..10;  
type T3 = int;  
type T4 = int;
```

- **Loose or weak equivalence by name: Pascal**
  - A declaration of an **alias** of a type generates a new name, not a new type
  - T3 and T4 are names of the same type
- Defined with reference to a specific program, not in general

# Structural Equivalence

- Two types are structurally equivalent if **they have the same structure**: substituting names for the relevant definitions, identical types are obtained.
- **Structural equivalence** between types is the minimal equivalence relation that satisfies:
  - A type name is equivalent to itself
  - If  $T$  is defined as type  $T = \text{expression}$ , then  $T$  is equivalent to  $\text{expression}$
  - Two types constructed using the same type constructor applied to equivalent types, are equivalent



# Structural Equivalence Examples

```
type T1 = int;  
type T2 = char;  
type T3 = struct{  
    T1 a;  
    T2 b;  
}  
type T4 = struct{  
    int a;  
    char b;  
}
```

```
type S = struct{  
    int a;  
    int b;  
}  
type T = struct{  
    int n;  
    int m;  
}  
type U = struct{  
    int m;  
    int n;  
}
```

- Some aspects are clear
  - T3 and T4 are structurally equivalent
- Other aspects are less clear
  - S, T and U have field names or order that are different: are they equivalent?
  - Usually no, yes for ML.
- Defined in general – not specifically for a program
  - Two equivalent types can be substituted without altering the meaning
  - Referential transparency

# Type equivalence in languages

- Combination or variant of the two equivalence rules
  - Pascal → weak equivalence by name
  - Java → equivalence by name – except for arrays with structural equivalence
  - C → structural equivalence for arrays and types defined with typedef but equivalence by name for records and unions
  - ML → structural equivalence except for types defined with datatype



# Compatibility and conversion

# Compatibility

- T is **compatible** with S if objects of type T can be used in contexts where objects of type S are expected
- Example: `int n; float r; r=r+n` in some languages
- In many languages compatibility is used for checking the correctness of:
  - Assignments (right-hand type compatible with left-hand),
  - parameter passing (actual parameter type compatible with formal one), ...
- Compatibility is reflexive and transitive but it is **not symmetric**
  - E.g., compatibility between `int` and `float` but not viceversa in some languages

# Compatibility

- The definition depends on the language.
- T can be compatible with S if
  - T and S are equivalent
  - The values of T are a subset of the values of S (interval)
  - All the operations on values of S can be performed on values of T (extension of record) – sort of subtype
  - There is a natural correspondence between values of T and values of S (`int` to `float`)
  - The values of T can be made to correspond to some values of S (`float` to `int` with truncating, rounding)

# Type conversion

- If  $T$  is compatible with  $S$ , there is some type conversion mechanism.
- The main ones are:
  - **Implicit conversion**, also called **coercion**. The language implementation does the conversion, with no mention at the language level
  - **Explicit conversion**, or **cast**, when the conversion is mentioned in the program

# Coercion

- Coercion indicates, in a case of compatibility, how the conversion should be done
- Three possibilities for realizing the type conversion. The types are different, but
  - **Same values and same storage representation** for values of  $T \subseteq S$ .  
E.g., types that are structurally the same, but have different names
    - Conversion only at compile time → no code to be generated
  - **Different values, but the common values have the same representation**. E.g., integer interval and integer
    - Code for dynamic control when there is an intersection
  - **Different representations for the values**. E.g., reals and integers
    - Code for the conversion

# Cast

- In certain cases, the programmer must insert explicit type conversion (C, Java: cast)

$S \ s = (S) \ T$

For example  $r = (\text{float}) \ n$  and  $n = (\text{int}) \ r$

- Cases similar to coercion
- Not every explicit conversion is allowed
  - Only when the language knows how to do the conversion
  - Can always be done when types are compatible (useful for documentation)
- Modern languages prefer cast to coercion.



# Summary

- Introduction to ML
- Expressions and commands
- Data types and type systems
- Expressions, types and operators in ML

SUMMARY



# Readings

- Chapter 6, 7 and 8 of the reference book
  - Maurizio Gabbrielli and Simone Martini "Linguaggi di Programmazione - Principi e Paradigmi", McGraw-Hill



# Next time

A yellow sticky note with a grey tab at the top left, featuring the text "Next Time" in a blue, hand-drawn font.

Next  
Time

- Type errors and conversions in ML
- Variables and functions in ML