

CSE 505

Lecture #11 October 8, 2012

ML Type System

```
τ ::= int | real | bool | string | unit
    | τ * ... * τ
    | { f1:τ, ..., fk:τ }
    | τ list
    | τ → τ
    | ' id
    | " id
    | user_defined_concrete_type
    | user_defined_abstract_type
```

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The ML Abstract Type

```
abstype [parameters] type-id = representation-type
with [exception1 ... exceptionk]
  < implementation of operation1 >
  ...
  < implementation of operationn >
end
```

Abstract Types are defined behaviorally, i.e., in terms of relevant operations of the type.

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How to implement an ML abstype

1. Choose a representation, e.g.
stack → list
2. Implement operations.

```
abstype 'a stack = rep of 'a list
with
  val emptystack = rep([]);
  fun push(x, rep(list)) = rep(x::list);
  ...
end;
```

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Internally, it is rep([])

```
- emptystack;
val it = - : 'a stack
```

Representation not visible

```
- val stk2 = push("apple", push("fig", emptystack));
val stk2 = - : string stack
```

Internally, it is rep(["apple", "fig"])

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Implementing ML abstype (cont'd)

1. Choose a representation
2. Implement operations.
3. Declare exceptions

```
abstype 'a stack = rep of 'a list
with exception poperror;
  exception topererror;
  ... define push and pop ...
  fun pop(rep([])) = raise poperror
  | pop(rep(_::t)) = rep(t);
  fun top(rep([])) = raise topererror
  | top(rep(h::_)) = h;
end;
```

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Need for Exception Handling

Why is the following code not OK from the standpoint of types?

```
fun top(rep([])) = "stack is empty!"
  | top(rep(h::_)) = h;
```

Answer: The type of the stack is forced to become "string stack", i.e., it can work on only on strings!

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Exception Handling

```
raise exception_name [ (arguments) ]
```

```
handle exception_name1 ( pattern1 ) = expr1
  | exception_name2 ( pattern2 ) = expr2
  ...
  | exception_namen ( patternn ) = exprn
```

```
expr handle handler
```

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Exception Handling - Remarks

- Strong Typing: Given

```
expr handle handler
```

The type of result returned by handler must be the same as that returned by expr
- Dynamic-cum-Static Scoping: When an exception is raised, the handler is searched by first looking in the immediate lexical context, and if none is found proceeding up the dynamic-link chain, etc.

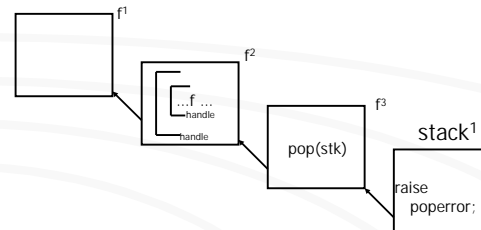
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Exception Handling

Uses both static and dynamic scoping:



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Exception Handling for Stacks

```
- val stk2 = push("apple", push("fig", emptystack));
  val stk2 = - : string stack
- top(pop(pop(stk2)));
  uncaught exception toperror
- top(pop(pop(stk2)))
  handle toperror => "I caught toperror!";
  val it = "I caught toperror!" : string
- top(pop(pop(pop(stk2))))
  handle poperror => 0
```

Type error!

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```
abstype 'a stack = rep of 'a list
with
  exception poperror;
  exception toperror;
  val emptystack = rep([]);
  fun push(x, rep(list)) = rep(x::list);
  fun pop(rep([])) = raise poperror
    | pop(rep(_::t)) = rep(t);
  fun isempty(rep([])) = true
    | isempty(rep(_::_)) = false;
  fun top(rep([])) = raise toperror
    | top(rep(h::_)) = h;
  fun show(rep(list)) = list;
end;
```

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Stack Interface (inferred by ML)

```
type 'a stack
exception poperror
exception topperor
val emptystack = - : 'a stack
val push = fn: 'a * 'a stack -> 'a stack
val pop = fn: 'a stack -> 'a stack
val isempty = fn: 'a stack -> bool
val top = fn: 'a stack -> 'a
val show = fn: 'a stack -> 'a list
```

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Polymorphic Ordered Structures

Example:

```
datatype 'a olist = onil | ocons of 'a * 'a list
```

While this does not fully capture the requirements for an ordered list, it provides the starting point for an abstract data type definition.

Let's see how an ordered list ADT can be defined ...

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```
abstype 'a olist = olistrep of 'a list
with exception empty_olist;
val onil = olistrep([]);
fun ocons(e, olistrep(list)) =
  let fun ins(x, []) = [x]
      | ins(x, y::t) = if x=y orelse x<y
                      then x::y::t
                      else y::ins(x,t)
      in olistrep(ins(e,list))
      end;
fun min(olistrep([]) = raise empty_olist
  | min(olistrep(h::_)) = h;
...
end;
```

Unresolved
Overloaded
Operator

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```
abstype 'a olist = olistrep of
  ('a list * {eq: 'a * 'a -> bool,
             lt: 'a * 'a -> bool })
with
exception empty_olist;
fun onil(ops) = olistrep([], ops);
fun ocons(e, olistrep(list, ops as {eq=freq, lt=flt})) =
  let fun ins(x, []) = [x]
      | ins(x, y::t) = if freq(x,y) orelse flt(x,y)
                      then x::y::t
                      else y::ins(x,t)
      in olistrep(ins(e,list), ops)
      end; ...
end;
```

pattern matching

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Ordered List Interface (inferred by ML)

```
type 'a olist
exception empty_olist
val onil = fn : { eq: 'a * 'a -> bool,
                 lt: 'a * 'a -> bool } -> 'a olist
val ocons = fn : 'a * 'a olist -> 'a olist
val min = fn : 'a olist -> 'a
...
```

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```
- fun f1(x,y:int) = x=y;
  val f1 = fn : int * int -> bool

- fun f2(x,y:int) = x<y;
  val f2 = fn : int * int -> bool

- val o1 = onil({eq = f1, lt = f2});
  val o1 = - : int olist
- val o2 = ocons(10, ocons(30, ocons(20,
                                     ocons(40, o1))));
  val o2 = - : int olist
- min(o2);
  val it = 40 : int
```

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Critique of ML Abstype

1. The abstype defines an implementation, not an interface.
2. The implementation details of an abstype cannot* entirely be encapsulated in the abstype.
3. The constraints on type parameters of the abstype are not explicitly given.

* Auxiliary type definitions cannot be written inside the abstype.

ML Solution

Interface	→ signature
Encapsulation	→ structure
Type Constraints	→ functor

We will return to this topic later.

Higher Order Functions in ML

$\text{map}(f, []) = []$ $\text{map}(f, h::t) = f(h) :: \text{map}(f, t)$
--

What is the inferred type for 'map'?

- * The input list is type: 'a list
- * The type of f is: 'a → 'b
- * The type of map: ('a → 'b) * 'a list → 'b list

The 'reduce' function

$\text{reduce}(f, b, []) = b$ $\text{reduce}(f, b, h::t) = f(h, \text{reduce}(f, b, t))$

What is the inferred type for 'reduce'?

- * The input list is type: 'a list
- * The type of f is: 'a * 'b → 'b
- * Reduce: ('a * 'b → 'b) * 'b * 'a list → 'b

Using Map and Reduce

- $\text{map}(\text{sqrt}, [1.0, 4.0, 9.0, 16.0]);$
val it = [1.0, 2.0, 3.0, 4.0] : real list
- $\text{map}(\text{length}, [[1,2,3], [], [1,2]]);$
val it = [3,0,2] : int list
- $\text{reduce}(\text{sum}, 0, [10, 20, 30, 40]);$
val it = 100 : int

Returning Functions as Results

Another way to define map:

$\text{map}(f) = \text{let fun } g([]) = []$ $ g(h::t) = f(h) :: g(t)$ in g end;
--

Type of map: ('a → 'b) → ('a list → 'b list)

This allows us to give the arguments of map one at a time, hence called "partial parameterization".

Partial Parameterization (syntax)

Some languages allow:

```
map f [] = []  
map f h::t = f(h) :: (map f t)
```

as short-hand for:

```
map(f) = let fun g([]) = []  
         | g(h::t) = f(h) :: g(t)  
         in g  
         end;
```

Another way to define reduce

```
reduce(f, b) = let fun g([]) = b  
                  | g(h::t) = f(h, g(t))  
                  in g  
                  end;
```

Type of reduce: $(a \rightarrow b) * b \rightarrow (a \text{ list} \rightarrow b)$

This allows "partial parameterization" of reduce.

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Using Map and Reduce

- map(sqrt);
val it = - : real list -> real list
- map(length);
val it = - : 'a list list -> int list
- reduce(sum, 0);
val it = - : int list -> int

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Lazy Evaluation and Higher Order Functions

Lazy Evaluation is similar to call-by-name in that we do not evaluate a function's arguments before entering the function body.

Benefits: Enhances modularity, supports conceptually infinite data structures, e.g. game trees

Two types of laziness:

1. Constructor laziness
2. Full laziness

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Generating Infinite Lists

```
fun numsfrom(n) = n :: numsfrom(n+1);
```

Above is nonterminating under ML evaluation:

The call `numsfrom(0)` will result in an infinite loop in ML, although it stands for the infinite list `[0, 1, 2, ...]`

```
numsfrom(0) -> 0 :: numsfrom(1)  
            -> 0 :: 1 :: numsfrom(2)  
            -> 0 :: 1 :: 2 :: numsfrom(3)  
            -> ... nonterminating ...
```

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Constructor Laziness Principle

Do not evaluate the arguments of a constructor until the associated structure is passed as argument to some function that selects (e.g., by pattern-matching) the components of the structure.

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Lazy Evaluation - illustration

```
fun numsfrom(n) = n :: numsfrom(n+1);

fun printlist(0, ilist) = ()
  | printlist(n, h :: ilist) = let val _ = print(h)
                              in printlist(n-1, ilist)
                              end;
```

print 0

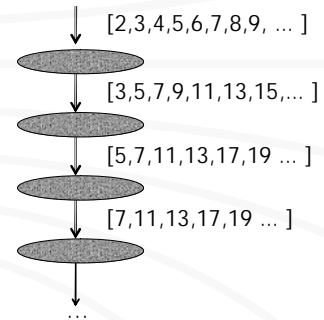
```
- printlist(10, numsfrom(0));
  → printlist(10, 0 :: numsfrom(1));
  → printlist(9, numsfrom(1));
  → printlist(9, 1 :: numsfrom(2));
  → ...
```

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Sieve of Eratosthenes



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Sieve Program

```
fun primes = sieve_all(numsfrom(2))

fun primes = sieve_all(numsfrom(2))

fun sieve_all(p::t) = p :: sieve_all(sieve(t, p))

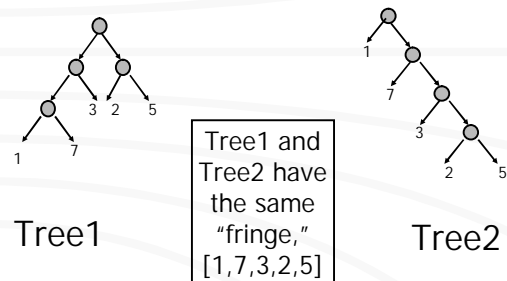
fun sieve(h::t, p) = if h mod p = 0
                     then sieve(t, p)
                     else h :: sieve(t, p);
```

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The "Same Fringe" Problem



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Same Fringe – Modular Def'n

```
datatype 'a tree = leaf of 'a | node of 'a tree * 'a tree;
```

```
fun tree2list(leaf(x)) = [x]
  | tree2list(node(t1,t2)) = tree2list(t1) @ tree2list(t2);
```

```
fun samefringe(t1, t2) = tree2list(t1) = tree2list(t2);
```

Note: tree2list is a good approach only with lazy evaluation.

```
Note: fun [] @ l2 = l2
       | h::t @ l2 = h :: (t @ l2)
```

Illustration of samefringe execution on next page.

```
samefringe(node(leaf(1),leaf(2)), node(leaf(2),leaf(1)))
```

```
=> tree2list(node(leaf(1),leaf(2))) =
    tree2list(node(leaf(2),leaf(1)))
```

```
=> tree2list(leaf(1)) @ tree2list(leaf(2)) =
    tree2list(node(leaf(2),leaf(1)))
```

```
=> [leaf(1)] @ tree2list(leaf(2)) =
    tree2list(node(leaf(2),leaf(1)))
```

```
=> leaf(1) :: ([] @ tree2list(leaf(2))) =
    tree2list(node(leaf(2),leaf(1)))
```

```
=> * leaf(1) :: ([] @ tree2list(leaf(2))) =
    leaf(2) :: ([] @ tree2list(leaf(1)))
```

```
=> false -- without evaluating remaining expressions
```

Benefits of lazy evaluation

Lazy evaluation enhances program modularity: generation of tree elements is decoupled from the test for equality.

(Contrast solution with coroutine approach.)

Constructor-laziness avoids unnecessary list generation, and allows termination as soon as a disagreement is found in the two lists.

Simulating lazy evaluation using higher-order functions

```
fun numsfrom(n) = let fun thk1() = n
                      fun thk2() = numsfrom(n+1)
                      in (thk1, thk2)
                      end
```

```
fun printlist(0, _) = []
  | printlist(n, (thk1, thk2)) = let val _ = print(thk1())
                                in printlist(n-1, thk2())
                                end;
```

Note: numsfrom is returning a pair of functions as result!

Is numsfrom well-typed?

```
fun numsfrom(n) = let fun thk1() = n
                      fun thk2() = numsfrom(n+1)
                      in (thk1, thk2)
                      end;
```

Circular dependency between numsfrom and thk2:

numsfrom: $\text{int} \rightarrow (\text{unit} \rightarrow \text{int}) * (\text{unit} \rightarrow ??)$
thk2: $\text{unit} \rightarrow ??$

Let us ignore this issue for the time-being.

Types vs Modules

Types	~	Signatures
Values	~	Structures
Functions	~	Functors

ML has two distinct concepts: types and signatures. In Java, a signature is a specification of a type.

Signature for BST

```
signature BST =
sig
  type item
  type bstree
  val make: item → bstree
  val insert: item * bstree → bstree
  val max: bstree → item
  val min: bstree → item
end;
```

Signature of BST elements

```
signature ELEMENT =
sig
  type element
  val eq: element * element → bool
  val lt: element * element → bool
end;
```

Encapsulating Element Implementation Details

```
structure Int: ELEMENT =
struct
  type element = int
  fun eq (x, y: element) = x = y
  fun lt (x, y: element) = x < y
end;
```

```
structure String: ELEMENT =
struct
  type element = string
  fun eq (x, y: element) = x = y
  fun lt (x, y: element) = x < y
end;
```

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Specifying Type Constraints and BST Implementation

```
functor BSTree(Elem:ELEMENT): BST =
struct
  type item = Elem.element
  val eq    = Elem.eq
  val lt    = Elem.lt
  datatype bstree=leaf |
                    node of item * bstree * bstree;
  ... see next slide ...
end;
```

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```
fun make(n) = node(n,leaf,leaf);

fun insert(x, leaf) = node(x,leaf,leaf)
  | insert(x, tr as node(n, t1, t2)) =
    if eq(x,n) then tr else
    if lt(x,n) then
      node(n,insert(x,t1),t2)
    else node(n,t1,insert(x,t2))

fun min(node(n,leaf,_)) = n
  | min(node(n,t, _)) = min(t);

fun max(node(n,_leaf)) = n
  | max(node(n,_t )) = max(t);
```

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Using Functors

```
structure IntBSTree  = BSTree (Int);
structure StringBSTree = BSTree (String);
```

```
fun test1() =
  let open IntBSTree;
      val h1 = make(21);
      val h2 = insert(39, h1);
      ...
      val h5 = insert(47, h4)
  in
    (min(h5), max(h5))
  end;
```

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Data Specification

Two important components of a datatype specification:

1. Signature (interface)
2. Axioms (meaning)

PLs normally support only signatures, but axioms are necessary for a complete specification of the type.

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Stack and Queue

(signatures are isomorphic)

```
signature STACK {
  type stack
  exception topperr, poperr
  emptystack: stack
  push: int x stack → stack
  top: stack → int
  pop: stack → stack
  isempty: stack → bool
}
```

```
signature QUEUE{
  type queue
  exception fsterr, remerr
  emptyqueue: queue
  ins: int x queue →queue
  front: queue → int
  remove: queue → queue
  isempty: queue → bool
}
```

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Need for Axioms

Consider stack `push(10, push(20, emptystack))`.
The value 10 is at the top of the stack.

Consider queue `ins(10, ins(20, emptyqueue))`.
The value 20 is at the front of the queue.

Thus, the LIFO vs FIFO difference is nowhere captured in the definition of the signatures! This is why datatype axioms are a necessary addition to the signatures.

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Stack Axioms

`top(emptystack) =`
`top(push(s, x)) = x`

undefined

`pop(emptystack) =`
`pop(push(s, x)) = s`

`isempty(emptystack) = true`
`isempty(push(s, x)) = false`

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Queue Axioms

`front(emptyqueue) =`
`front(ins(x, emptyqueue)) = x`
`front(ins(x, q)) = front(q) ← not isempty(q)`

`remove(emptyqueue) =`
`remove(ins(x, emptyqueue)) = emptyqueue`
`remove(ins(q, x)) = ins(remove(q), x)`
← not isempty(q)

`isempty(emptyqueue) = true`
`isempty(ins(s, x)) = false`

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The Set datatype

```
signature SET =  
sig  
  type item, set  
  val empty   : set  
  val single  : item → set  
  val union   : set * set → set  
  val member  : item * set → bool  
  val intersect : set * set → set  
  val subset  : set * set → bool  
  val equal   : set * set → bool  
end;
```

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Set datatype axioms

`member(x, empty) = false`
`member(x, single(y)) = equal(x, y)`
`member(x, union(s1, s2)) = member(x, s1) or member(x, s2)`

`subset(empty, s) = true`
`subset(single(x), s) = member(x, s)`
`subset(union(s1, s2), s) = subset(s1, s) and subset(s2, s)`

`equal(s1, s2) = subset(s1, s2) and subset(s2, s1)`

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Datatype Correctness

We can establish the correctness of a datatype implementation with respect to a set of axioms by demonstrating two properties:

1. Representation Invariant
2. Inherent Invariant

(1) → every abstract value has a concrete representation

(1) → datatype axioms are satisfied by the implementation

ML Module for Set Datatype

```

functor Set(Item : ITEM) : SET =
struct
  type item = Item.item;
  val eq    = Item.equal;
  datatype set = rep of item list;

  val empty = rep([]);
  fun single(e) = rep([e]);
  fun union(rep(l1), rep(l2)) = rep(l1@l2);

  fun member(e, rep([])) = false
    | member(e, rep(h::t)) = eq(e,h) orelse
                                member(e, rep(t));
  ...
end;

```

Representation Correctness: Example

Datatype constructors: empty, single, union

Operation implementations:

```

val empty = rep([]);
fun single(e) = rep([e]);
fun union(rep(l1), rep(l2)) = rep(l1@l2);

```

The representation invariance follows from the fact that the append (@) of any two lists exists.

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Inherent Correctness: example

The member function axioms:

```

member(x, empty) = false
member(x, single(y)) = equal(x, y)
member(x, union(s1,s2)) = member(x,s1) or member(x,s2)

```

The member function implementation (ML):

```

fun member(e, rep([])) = false
  | member(e, rep(h::t)) = eq(e,h) orelse
                          member(e, rep(t));

```

The member constructor implementation (ML):

```

val empty = rep([]);
fun single(e) = rep([e]);
fun union(rep(l1), rep(l2)) = rep(l1@l2);

```

Inherent Correctness (cont'd)

Substitute constructor definitions in member axioms, we must show that:

1. $\text{member}(x, \text{rep}([])) = \text{false}$
2. $\text{member}(x, \text{rep}([y])) = \text{eq}(x, y)$
3. $\text{member}(x, \text{rep}(l1@l2)) = \text{member}(x, \text{rep}(l1)) \text{ or else } \text{member}(x, \text{rep}(l2))$

Based upon the implementation, we can assume:

```

member(e, rep([])) = false
member(e, rep(h::t)) = eq(e,h) orelse member(e, rep(t));

```

Properties (1) and (2) are immediate, hence we focus on (3).

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Inherent Correctness (cont'd)

We must show that:

```

member(x, rep(l1@l2)) = member(x, rep(l1)) orelse
                        member(x, rep(l2))

```

Proof by induction on l1:

Base Case, $l1 = []$: Easy to see that LHS = RHS

Induction Hypothesis: Assume the equality holds for

```

member(x, rep(t@l2)) = member(x, rep(t)) orelse
                      member(x, rep(l2))

```

Induction Step: Show the equality holds for

```

member(x, rep(h::t @ l2)) = member(x, rep(h::t)) orelse
                           member(x, rep(l2))

```

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Inherent Correctness (cont'd)

To show that:

```

member(x, rep(h::t @ l2)) = member(x, rep(h::t)) orelse
                           member(x, rep(l2))

```

Note: $h::t @ l2 = h :: (t @ l2)$ – from definition of @

LHS = $\text{eq}(x, h) \text{ or else } \text{member}(t, \text{rep}(t@l2))$

RHS = $\text{eq}(x, h) \text{ or else } \text{member}(x, \text{rep}(t)) \text{ or else } \text{member}(x, \text{rep}(l2))$

Now LHS = RHS from the induction hypothesis, since:

```

member(x, rep(t@l2)) = member(x, rep(t)) orelse
                      member(x, rep(l2))

```