

# SML

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# Functional Programming

- *Function evaluation* is the basic concept for a programming paradigm that has been implemented in *functional programming languages*
- The language ML (“Meta Language”) was originally introduced in 1977 as part of a theorem proving system, and was intended for describing and implementing proof strategies in the Logic for Computable Functions (LCF) theorem prover (whose language, pplambda, a combination of the first-order predicate calculus and the simply typed polymorphic lambda calculus, had ML as its metalanguage)
- Standard ML of New Jersey (SML) is an implementation of ML
  - The basic mode of computation in SML is the use of the definition and application of functions

# Install Standard ML

- Download from:
  - <http://www.smlnj.org>
- Start Standard ML:
  - Type **sml** from the shell (run command line in Windows)
- Exit Standard ML:
  - **Ctrl-Z** under Windows
  - **Ctrl-D** under Unix/Mac

# Standard ML

- The basic cycle of SML activity has three parts:
  - read input from the user
  - evaluate it
  - print the computed value (or an error message)

# First SML example

- SML prompt:

–

- Simple example:

– 3;

**val it = 3 : int**

- The first line contains the SML prompt, followed by *an expression* typed in by the user and ended by *a semicolon*
- The second line is SML's response, indicating the *value* of the input expression and its *type*

# Interacting with SML

- SML has a number of built-in operators and data types.
  - it provides the standard arithmetic operators

- **3+2;**

**val it = 5 : int**

- The boolean values **true** and **false** are available, as are logical operators such as: **not** (negation), **andalso** (conjunction), and **orelse** (disjunction)

- **not(true);**

**val it = false : bool**

- **true andalso false;**

**val it = false : bool**

# Types in SML

- As part of the evaluation process, SML determines the type of the output value using methods of *type inference*.
- Simple types include **int**, **real**, **bool**, and **string**
- One can also associate identifiers with values

```
- val five = 3+2;  
val five = 5 : int
```

and thereby establish a new value binding

```
- five;  
val it = 5 : int
```

# Function Definitions in SML

- The general form of a function definition in SML is:

```
fun <identifier> (<parameters>) =  
    <expression>;
```

- For example,

```
- fun double(x) = 2*x;
```

```
val double = fn : int -> int
```

declares **double** as a function from integers to integers, i.e., of  
type **int**  $\rightarrow$  **int**

- Apply a function to an argument of the wrong type results in  
an error message:

```
- double(2.0) ;
```

```
Error: operator and operand don't agree ...
```



# Function Definitions in SML

- The user may also **explicitly** indicate types:
  - `fun max(x:int,y:int,z:int):int =  
 if ((x>y) andalso (x>z)) then x  
 else (if (y>z) then y else z);  
val max = fn : int * int * int -> int`
  - `max(3,2,2);  
val it = 3 : int`

# Recursive Definitions

- The use of recursive definitions is a main characteristic of functional programming languages, and these languages encourage the use of recursion over iterative constructs such as while loops:
  - `fun factorial(x) = if x=0 then 1  
    else x*factorial(x-1);`
  - `val factorial = fn : int -> int`
- The definition is used by SML to evaluate applications of the function to specific arguments:
  - `factorial(5);`
  - `val it = 120 : int`
  - `factorial(10);`
  - `val it = 3628800 : int`

# Example: Greatest Common Divisor

- The greatest common divisor (gcd) of two positive integers can be defined recursively based on the following observations:

$\text{gcd}(n, n) = n,$

$\text{gcd}(m, n) = \text{gcd}(n, m),$  if  $m < n,$  and

$\text{gcd}(m, n) = \text{gcd}(m - n, n),$  if  $m > n.$

- These identities suggest the following recursive definition:

- `fun gcd(m,n):int = if m=n then n`

`else if m>n then gcd(m-n,n)`

`else gcd(m,n-m) ;`

`val gcd = fn : int * int -> int`

- `gcd(12,30) ;`

- `gcd(1,20) ;`

- `gcd(125,56345) ;`

`val it = 6 : int`

`val it = 1 : int`

`val it = 5 : int`

# 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
<b>div</b>	:	$\text{int} \times \text{int} \rightarrow \text{int}$	infix	7
<b>mod</b>	:	$\text{int} \times \text{int} \rightarrow \text{int}$	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
~	:	$\text{int} \rightarrow \text{int}$	prefix	
<b>abs</b>	:	$\text{int} \rightarrow \text{int}$	prefix	

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

# 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
<>	:	$\text{real} \times \text{real} \rightarrow \text{bool}^*$	infix	4
<	:	$\text{real} \times \text{real} \rightarrow \text{bool}$	infix	4
<=	:	$\text{real} \times \text{real} \rightarrow \text{bool}$	infix	4
>	:	$\text{real} \times \text{real} \rightarrow \text{bool}$	infix	4
>=	:	$\text{real} \times \text{real} \rightarrow \text{bool}$	infix	4
~	:	$\text{real} \rightarrow \text{real}$	prefix	
<b>abs</b>	:	$\text{real} \rightarrow \text{real}$	prefix	
<b>Math.sqrt</b>	:	$\text{real} \rightarrow \text{real}$	prefix	
<b>Math.ln</b>	:	$\text{real} \rightarrow \text{real}$	prefix	

unary operator – is represented by ~

# Type conversions

<i>op</i>	:	<i>type</i>
<b>real</b>	:	$\text{int} \rightarrow \text{real}$
<b>ceil</b>	:	$\text{real} \rightarrow \text{int}$
<b>floor</b>	:	$\text{real} \rightarrow \text{int}$
<b>round</b>	:	$\text{real} \rightarrow \text{int}$
<b>trunc</b>	:	$\text{real} \rightarrow \text{int}$

```
- 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
```

# More recursive functions

```
- fun exp(b,n) = if n=0 then 1.0  
    else b * exp(b,n-1);  
val exp = fn : real * int -> real  
  
- exp(2.0,10);  
val it = 1024.0 : real
```

# Tuples in SML

- In SML tuples are finite sequences of arbitrary but fixed length, where different components need not be of the same type

```
- (1, "two");
```

```
val it = (1,"two") : int * string
```

```
- val t1 = (1,2,3);
```

```
val t1 = (1,2,3) : int * int * int
```

```
- val t2 = (4, (5.0,6));
```

```
val t2 = (4, (5.0,6)) : int * (real * int)
```

- The components of a tuple can be accessed by applying the built-in functions `#i`, where `i` is a positive number

```
- #1(t1);
```

```
val it = 1 : int
```

```
- #2(t2);
```

```
val it = (5.0,6) : real * int
```

If a function `#i` is applied to a tuple with fewer than `i` components, an error results.



# Tuples in SML

- Functions using tuples should completely define the type of tuples, otherwise SML cannot detect the type, e.g., nth argument

```
- fun firstThird(Tuple: 'a * 'b * 'c): 'a * 'c =  
    (#1(Tuple), #3(Tuple));
```

```
val firstThird = fn : 'a * 'b * 'c -> 'a * 'c
```

```
- firstThird((1, "two", 3));
```

```
val it = (1,3) : int * int
```

- Without types, we would get an error:

```
- fun firstThird(Tuple) = (#1(Tuple), #3(Tuple));
```

```
stdIn: Error: unresolved flex record (need to know the  
names of ALL the fields in this context)
```

# Polymorphic functions

```
- fun id x = x;  
val id = fn : 'a -> 'a  
- (id 1, id "two");  
val it = (1,"two") : int * string  
- fun fst(x,y) = x;  
val fst = fn : 'a * 'b -> 'a  
- fun snd(x,y) = y;  
val snd = fn : 'a * 'b -> 'b  
- fun switch(x,y) = (y,x);  
val switch = fn : 'a * 'b -> 'b * 'a
```

# Polymorphic functions

- `'a` means *"any type"*, while `' 'a` means *"any type that can be compared for equality"* (see the `concat` function later which compares a polymorphic variable list with `[]`)
- There will be a *"Warning: calling polyEqual"* that means that you're comparing two values with polymorphic type for equality
  - Why does this produce a warning? Because it's less efficient than comparing two values of known types for equality
  - How do you get rid of the warning? By changing your function to only work with a specific type instead of any type
    - Should you do that or care about the warning? Probably not. In most cases having a function that can work for any type is more important than having the most efficient code possible, so you should just ignore the warning.

# Lists in SML

- A list in SML is a finite sequence of objects, all of the same type:

- `[1,2,3];`

```
val it = [1,2,3] : int list
```

- `[true,false,true];`

```
val it = [true,false,true] : bool list
```

- `[[1,2,3],[4,5],[6]];`

```
val it = [[1,2,3],[4,5],[6]] :  
          int list list
```

- The last example is **a list of lists of integers**

# Lists in SML

- All objects in a list must be of the same type:

- `[1, [2]];`

**Error: operator and operand don't agree**

- An empty list is denoted by one of the following expressions:

- `[];`

`val it = [] : 'a list`

- `nil;`

`val it = [] : 'a list`

- Note that the type is described in terms of a type variable `'a`. Instantiating the type variable, by types such as `int`, results in (different) empty lists of corresponding types

# Operations on Lists

- SML provides various functions for manipulating lists
  - The function **hd** returns the first element of its argument list

```
- hd[1,2,3];
```

```
val it = 1 : int
```

```
- hd[[1,2],[3]];
```

```
val it = [1,2] : int list
```

Applying this function to the empty list will result in an error.

- The function **tl** removes the first element of its argument lists, and returns the remaining list

```
- tl[1,2,3];
```

```
val it = [2,3] : int list
```

```
- tl[[1,2],[3]];
```

```
val it = [[3]] : int list list
```

- The application of this function to the empty list will also result in an error

# Operations on Lists

- Lists can be constructed by the (binary) function `::` (read *cons*) that adds its first argument to the front of the second argument.

- `5 :: [];`

`val it = [5] : int list`

- `1 :: [2,3];`

`val it = [1,2,3] : int list`

- `[1,2] :: [[3],[4,5,6,7]];`

`val it = [[1,2],[3],[4,5,6,7]] : int list list`

- IMPORTANT: The arguments must be of the right type (such that the result is a list of elements of the same type):

- `[1] :: [2,3];`

**Error: operator and operand don't agree**

# Operations on Lists

- Lists can also be compared for equality:

- `[1,2,3]=[1,2,3];`

- `val it = true : bool`

- `[1,2]=[2,1];`

- `val it = false : bool`

- `tl[1] = [];`

- `val it = true : bool`



# Defining List Functions

- Recursion is particularly useful for defining functions that process lists
- For example, consider the problem of defining an SML function that takes as arguments two lists of the same type and returns the concatenated list.
  - In defining such list functions, it is helpful to keep in mind that a list is either
    - an empty list **[]** or
    - of the form ***x* :: *y***

# Concatenation

- In designing a function for concatenating two lists **x** and **y** we thus distinguish two cases, depending on the form of **x**:
  - If **x** is an empty list **[]**, then concatenating **x** with **y** yields just **y**.
  - If **x** is of the form **x1 :: x2**, then concatenating **x** with **y** is a list of the form **x1 :: z**, where **z** is the result of concatenating **x2** with **y**.
    - We can be more specific by observing that
$$\mathbf{x} = \mathbf{x1} :: \mathbf{x2} = \mathbf{hd}(\mathbf{x}) :: \mathbf{tl}(\mathbf{x})$$

# Concatenation

```
- fun concat(x,y) = if x=[] then y  
  else hd(x)::concat(tl(x),y);
```

```
val concat = fn : 'a list * 'a list -> 'a list
```

- Applying the function yields the expected results:

```
- concat([1,2],[3,4,5]);
```

```
val it = [1,2,3,4,5] : int list
```

```
- concat([], [1,2]);
```

```
val it = [1,2] : int list
```

```
- concat([1,2], []);
```

```
val it = [1,2] : int list
```

# Length

- The following function computes the length of its argument list:

```
- fun length(L) = if (L=nil) then 0  
                  else 1+length(tl(L));
```

```
val length = fn : 'a list -> int
```

```
- length[1,2,3];
```

```
val it = 3 : int
```

```
- length[[5],[4],[3],[2,1]];
```

```
val it = 4 : int
```

```
- length[];
```

```
val it = 0 : int
```

# doubleall

- The following function doubles all the elements in its argument list (of integers):

```
- fun doubleall(L) =  
    if L=[] then []  
    else (2*hd(L))::doubleall(tl(L));  
val doubleall = fn : int list -> int list  
  
- doubleall([1,3,5,7]);  
val it = [2,6,10,14] : int list
```

# Reversing a List

```
- fun reverse(L) =  
    if L = nil then nil  
    else concat(reverse(tl(L)), [hd(L)]);  
val reverse = fn : 'a list -> 'a list  
  
- reverse [1,2,3];  
calls  
- concat(reverse([2,3]), [1])  
- concat([3,2], [1]);  
val it = [3,2,1] : int list
```

# Reversing a List

- Concatenation of lists, for which we gave a recursive definition, is actually a built-in operator in SML, denoted by the symbol @

- We can use this operator in reversing:

```
- fun reverse(L) =  
    if L = nil then nil  
    else reverse(tl(L)) @ [hd(L)];  
val reverse = fn : 'a list -> 'a list  
- reverse [1,2,3];  
val it = [3,2,1] : int list
```

# Reversing a List

```
- fun reverse(L) =  
    if L = nil then nil  
    else concat(reverse(tl(L)), [hd(L)]);
```

This method is not efficient:  $O(n^2)$

$$\begin{aligned}T(N) &= T(N-1) + (N-1) = \\&= T(N-2) + (N-2) + (N-1) = \\&= 1 + 2 + 3 + \dots + N-1 = N * (N-1) / 2\end{aligned}$$



# Reversing a List

- This way (using an accumulator) is better:  $O(n)$

```
- fun reverse_helper(L,L2) =  
  if L = nil then L2  
  else reverse_helper(tl(L),hd(L)::L2);  
- fun reverse(L) = reverse_helper(L,[]);  
- reverse [1,2,3];  
- reverse_helper([1,2,3],[]);  
- reverse_helper([2,3],[1]);  
- reverse_helper([3],[2,1]);  
- reverse_helper([], [3,2,1]);  
[3,2,1]
```

# Removing List Elements

- The following function **removes all occurrences** of its first argument from its second argument list

```
- fun remove(x,L) = if (L=[]) then []  
    else if x=hd(L) then remove(x,tl(L))  
    else hd(L)::remove(x,tl(L));  
val remove = fn : 'a * 'a list -> 'a list
```

```
- remove(1,[5,3,1]);  
val it = [5,3] : int list
```

```
- remove(2,[4,2,4,2,4,2,2]);  
val it = [4,4,4] : int list
```

# Removing Duplicates

- The remove function can be used in the definition of another function that **removes all duplicate occurrences** of elements from its argument list:

```
- fun removedupl(L) =  
  if (L=[]) then []  
  else hd(L)::removedupl(remove(hd(L),tl(L)));  
val removedupl = fn : 'a list -> 'a list  
  
- removedupl([3,2,4,6,4,3,2,3,4,3,2,1]);  
val it = [3,2,4,6,1] : int list
```

# Definition by Patterns

- In SML functions can also be defined via patterns.
  - The general form of such definitions is:

```
fun <identifier>(<pattern1>) = <expression1>  
| <identifier>(<pattern2>) = <expression2>  
| ...  
| <identifier>(<patternK>) = <expressionK>;
```

where the identifiers, which name the function, are all the same, all patterns are of the same type, and all expressions are of the same type.

- Example:

```
- fun reverse(nil) = nil  
  | reverse(x::xs) = reverse(xs) @ [x];  
val reverse = fn : 'a list -> 'a list
```

The patterns are inspected in order and the first match determines the value of the function.

# Sets with lists in SML

```
fun member(X,L) =  
    if L=[] then false  
    else if X=hd(L) then true  
    else member(X,tl(L));
```

OR with patterns:

```
fun member(X,[]) = false  
  | member(X,Y::Ys) =  
      if (X=Y) then true  
      else member(X,Ys);
```

```
member(1,[1,2]); (* true *)
```

```
member(1,[2,1]); (* true *)
```

```
member(1,[2,3]); (* false *)
```

# Sets UNION

```
fun union(L1,L2) =  
    if L1=[] then L2  
    else if member(hd(L1),L2)  
        then union(tl(L1),L2)  
        else hd(L1)::union(tl(L1),L2);
```

or

```
fun union([],L2) = L2  
  | union(X::Xs,L2) =  
    if member(X,L2) then union(Xs,L2)  
    else X::union(Xs,L2);
```

```
union([1,5,7,9],[2,3,5,10]);
```

```
(* [1,7,9,2,3,5,10] *)
```

```
union([], [1,2]);      (* [1,2] *)
```

```
union([1,2], []);      (* [1,2] *)
```

# Sets Intersection ( $\cap$ )

```
fun intersection(L1,L2) =  
  if L1=[] then []  
  else if member(hd(L1),L2)  
  then hd(L1)::intersection(tl(L1),L2)  
  else intersection(tl(L1),L2);  
  
intersection([1,5,7,9],[2,3,5,10]);  
(* [5] *)
```

# Sets $\cap$ with patterns

```
fun intersection([],L2) = []  
  | intersection(L1,[]) = []  
  | intersection(X::Xs,L2) =  
    if member(X,L2)  
    then X::intersection(Xs,L2)  
    else intersection(Xs,L2);
```



# Sets subset

```
fun subset(L1,L2) = if L1=[] then true
  else if L2=[] then false
  else if member(hd(L1),L2)
    then subset(tl(L1),L2)
  else false;
```

```
subset([1,5,7,9],[2,3,5,10]); (* false *)
subset([5],[2,3,5,10]);      (* true  *)
```

# Sets subset patterns

```
fun subset([],L2) = true
  | subset(L1,[],) = false
  | subset(X::Xs,L2) =
    if member(X,L2)
      then subset(Xs,L2)
    else false;
```

# Sets equal

```
fun setEqual(L1,L2) =  
    subset(L1,L2) andalso subset(L2,L1);
```

```
setEqual([1,5,7],[7,5,1,2]); (* false *)
```

```
setEqual([1,5,7],[7,5,1]); (* true *)
```

# Set difference

```
fun minus(L1,L2) = if L1=[] then []  
    else if member(hd(L1),L2)  
        then minus(tl(L1),L2)  
        else hd(L1)::minus(tl(L1),L2);
```

```
minus([1,5,7,9],[2,3,5,10]);  
(* [1,7,9] *)
```

# Set difference patterns

```
fun minus([],L2) = []  
  | minus(X::Xs,L2) =  
    if member(X,L2)  
      then minus(Xs,L2)  
      else X::minus(Xs,L2);
```

```
minus([1,5,7,9],[2,3,5,10]);  
(* [1,7,9] *)
```

# Sets Cartesian product

```
fun product_one(X,L) = if L=[] then []  
    else (X,hd(L))::product_one(X,tl(L));  
product_one(1,[2,3]);  
(* [(1,2),(1,3)] *)  
fun product(L1,L2) = if L1=[] then L2  
    else union(product_one(hd(L1),L2),  
        product(tl(L1),L2));  
product([1,5,7,9],[2,3,5,10]);  
(* [(1,2),(1,3),(1,5),(1,10),(5,2),  
(5,3),(5,5),(5,10),(7,2),(7,3),...] *)
```

# Sets Cartesian product

```
fun product_one(X, []) = []  
  | product_one(X, Y :: Ys) =  
    (X, Y) :: product_one(X, Ys) ;  
product_one(1, [2, 3]) ;  
(* [(1, 2), (1, 3)] *)  
fun product([], L2) = []  
  | product(L1, []) = []  
  | product(X :: Xs, L2) =  
    union(product_one(X, L2) ,  
          product(Xs, L2)) ;  
product([1, 5, 7, 9], [2, 3, 5, 10]) ;  
(* [(1, 2), (1, 3), (1, 5), (1, 10), (5, 2),  
    (5, 3), (5, 5), (5, 10), (7, 2), (7, 3), ...] *)
```

# Sets Powerset

```
fun insert_all(E,L) =  
    if L=[] then []  
    else (E::hd(L)) :: insert_all(E,tl(L));  
insert_all(1,[[],[2],[3],[2,3]]);  
(* [ [1], [1,2], [1,3], [1,2,3] ] *)  
fun powerSet(L) =  
    if L=[] then [[]]  
    else powerSet(tl(L)) @  
        insert_all(hd(L),powerSet(tl(L)));  
powerSet([]);  
powerSet([1,2,3]);  
powerSet([2,3]);
```



# Sets Powerset patterns

```
fun insert_all(E,[]) = []  
  | insert_all(E,Y::Ys) = (E::Y)::insert_all(E,Ys);  
insert_all(1,[[],[2],[3],[2,3]]);  
(* [ [1], [1,2], [1,3], [1,2,3] ] *)  
fun powerSet([]) = [[]]  
  | powerset(H::T) = powerSet(T) @  
    insert_all(H,powerSet(T));  
powerSet([]);  
powerSet([1,2,3]);  
powerSet([2,3]);
```

# Higher-Order Functions

- In functional programming languages functions (called *first-class functions*) can be used as parameters or return value in definitions of other (called *higher-order*) functions
  - The following function, **map**, applies its first argument (a function) to all elements in its second argument (a list of suitable type):

```
- fun map(f, []) = []  
  | map(f, H::T) = f(H)::map(f, T);   OR  
- fun map(f, L) = if (L=[]) then []  
  else f(hd(L))::(map(f, tl(L)));  
val map = fn : ('a -> 'b) * 'a list -> 'b list
```

- We may apply **map** with any function as argument:

```
- fun square(X) = (X:int)*X;  
val square = fn : int -> int  
- map(square, [2,3,4]);  
val it = [4,9,16] : int list
```

# Higher-Order Functions

- Anonymous functions:

```
- map(fn X=>X+1, [1,2,3,4,5]);
```

```
val it = [2,3,4,5,6] : int list
```

```
- fun incr(list) = map (fn X=>X+1, list);
```

```
val incr = fn : int list -> int list
```

```
- incr[1,2,3,4,5];
```

```
val it = [2,3,4,5,6] : int list
```

# McCarthy's 91 function

- McCarthy's 91 function:

```
- fun mc91(N) = if N>100 then N-10  
  else mc91(mc91(N+11));
```

```
val mc91 = fn : int -> int
```

```
- map mc91 [101, 100, 99, 98, 97, 96];
```

```
val it = [91,91,91,91,91,91] : int list
```

# Filter

- Filter: keep in a list only the values that satisfy some logical condition/boolean function:

```
- fun filter(f,L) =  
    if L=[] then []  
    else if f(hd L)  
        then (hd L)::(filter (f, tl L))  
        else filter(f, tl L);  
val filter = fn : ('a -> bool) * 'a list -> 'a list  
  
- filter((fn x => x>0), [~1,0,1,2,3,~2,4]);  
val it = [1,2,3,4] : int list
```

# Permutations

```
- fun myInterleave(X, []) = [[X]]  
  | myInterleave(X, H::T) =  
    (X::H::T) :: (  
      map((fn L => H::L), myInterleave(X, T)));  
  
- myInterleave(1, []);  
val it = [[1]] : int list list  
  
- myInterleave(1, [3]);  
val it = [[1,3],[3,1]] : int list list  
  
- myInterleave(1, [2,3]);  
val it = [[1,2,3],[2,1,3],[2,3,1]] : int list list
```

# Permutations

```
- fun appendAll(nil) = nil  
| appendAll(H::T) = H @ (appendAll(T));
```

flattens the list

```
- appendAll([[[1,2]], [[2,1]]]);  
val it = [[1,2],[2,1]] : int list list
```

```
- fun permute(nil) = [[]]  
| permute(H::T) = appendAll(  
    map((fn L => myInterleave(H,L)), permute(T)) );
```

```
- permute([1,2,3]);  
val it = [[1,2,3],[2,1,3],[2,3,1],[1,3,2],[3,1,2],  
          [3,2,1]] : int list list
```

# Currying = partial application

- fun f A B C = A+B+C;

OR

- fun f(A) (B) (C) = A+B+C;

val f = fn : int -> int -> int -> int

val f = fn : int -> (int -> (int -> int))

- val inc1 = f(1);

val inc1 = fn : int -> int -> int

val inc1 = fn : int -> (int -> int)

- val inc12 = inc1(2);

val inc12 = fn : int -> int

- inc12(3);

val it = 6 : int



# Currying and *Lazy evaluation*

- `fun mult X Y = if X = 0 then 0 else X * Y;`

Eager evaluation: reduce as much as possible before applying the function

```
mult (1-1) (3 div 0)
```

```
-> (fn x => (fn y => if x = 0 then 0 else x * y)) (1-1) (3 div 0)
```

```
-> (fn x => (fn y => if x = 0 then 0 else x * y)) 0 (3 div 0)
```

```
-> (fn y => if 0 = 0 then 0 else 0 * y) (3 div 0)
```

```
-> (fn y => if 0 = 0 then 0 else 0 * y) error
```

```
-> error
```

Lazy evaluation:

```
mult (1-1) (3 div 0)
```

```
-> (fn x => (fn y => if x = 0 then 0 else x * y)) (1-1) (3 div 0)
```

```
-> (fn y => if (1-1) = 0 then 0 else (1-1) * y) (3 div 0)
```

```
-> if (1-1) = 0 then 0 else (1-1) * (3 div 0)
```

```
-> if 0 = 0 then 0 else (1-1) * (3 div 0)
```

```
-> 0
```

# Currying and *Lazy evaluation*

- Argument evaluation as late as possible (possibly never)
  - Evaluation only when indispensable for a reduction
- Lazy evaluation in Standard ML for the primitives: **if then else** , **andalso** , **orelse** , and pattern matching
- Property: If the eager evaluation of expression **e** gives **n1** and the lazy evaluation of **e** gives **n2** then **n1 = n2**
  - But, lazy evaluation gives a result more often

# Sum sequence

```
- fun sum f N =  
    if N = 0 then 0  
    else f(N) + sum f (N-1) ;  
val sum = fn : (int → int) → int → int
```

```
- sum (fn X => X * X) 3 ;
```

```
val it = 14 : int
```

because

$$f(3) + f(2) + f(1) + f(0) = 9 + 4 + 1 + 0 = 14$$

# Composition

- Composition is another example of a higher-order function:

```
- fun comp(f,g)(X) = f(g(X));
```

```
val comp = fn : ('a -> 'b) * ('c -> 'a) -> 'c -> 'b
```

```
- val f = comp(Math.sin, Math.cos);
```

```
val f = fn : real -> real
```

```
val g = fn : real -> real
```

```
- f(0.25);
```

```
val it = 0.824270418114 : real
```

**SAME WITH:**

```
- val g = Math.sin o Math.cos;
```

(\* Composition "o" is predefined symbol \*)

```
- g(0.25);
```

```
val it = 0.824270418114 : real
```

# Find

- Pick only the first element of a list that satisfies a given predicate:

```
- fun myFind pred nil = raise Fail "No such element"
  | myFind pred (H::T) =
    if pred H then H
    else myFind pred T;
val myFind = fn : ('a -> bool) -> 'a list -> 'a

- myFind (fn X => X > 0.0) [~1.2, ~3.4, 5.6, 7.8];
val it = 5.6 : real
```

# Reduce (aka. foldr)

- We can generalize the notion of recursion over lists as follows: all recursions have a **base case**, an **iterative case**, and a **way of combining results**:

```
- fun reduce f B nil = B
  | reduce f B (H::T) = f(H, reduce f B T);

- fun sumList aList = reduce (op +) 0 aList;
val sumList = fn : int list -> int

- sumList [1, 2, 3];
val it = 6 : int
```

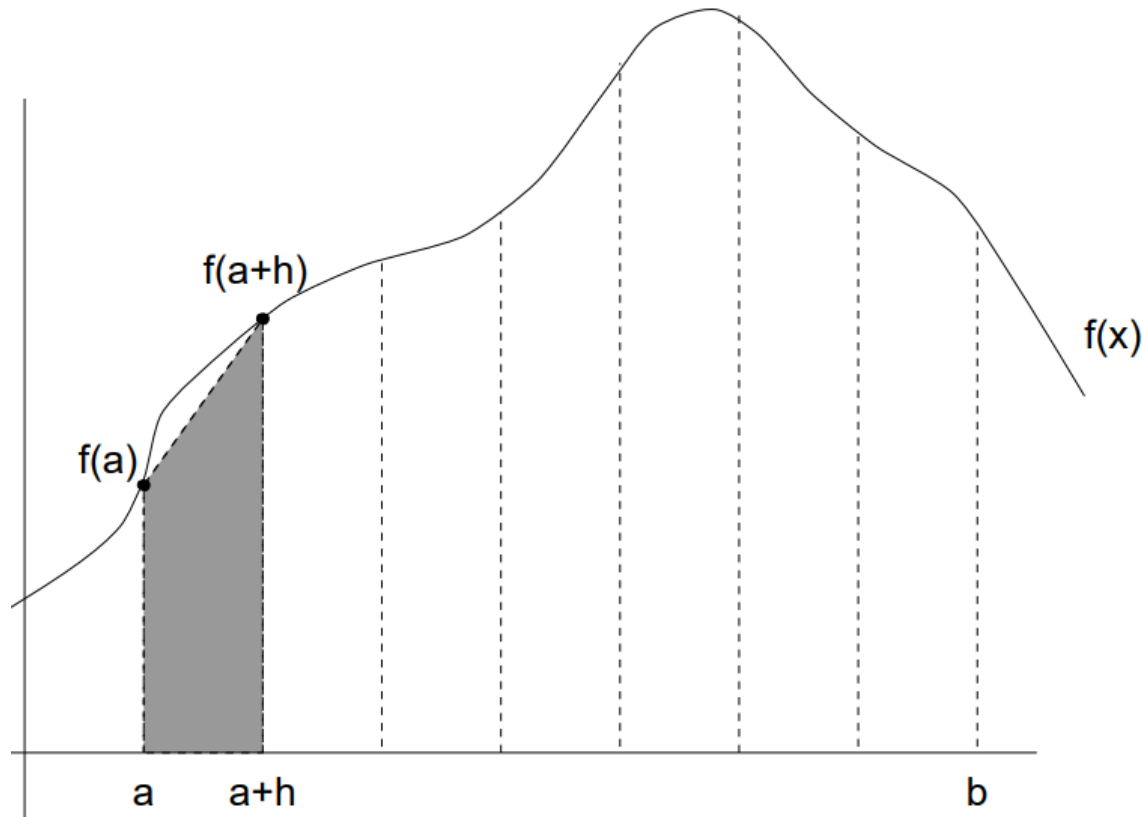
Note: This is called fold right (foldr)

# foldl

- `fun foldl(f: 'a*'b->'b, Acc: 'b, L: 'a list):'b =  
 if L=[] then Acc  
 else foldl(f, f(hd(L),Acc), tl(L));`
- `fun sum(L:int list):int =  
 foldl((fn (X,Acc) => Acc+X), 0, L);`
- `sum[1, 2, 3];`  
`val it = 6 : int`
  - it walks the list from left to right

# Numerical integration

- Computation of  $\int_a^b f(x) dx$  by the trapezoidal rule:



$n$  intervals

$$h = (b - a) / n$$



$$= h * ( f(a) + f(a+h) ) / 2$$

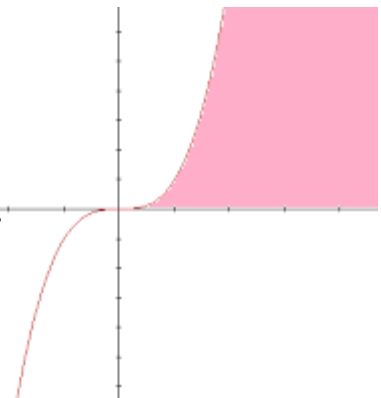


# Numerical integration

```
- fun integrate (f,a,b,n) =  
    if n <= 0 orelse b <= a then 0.0  
    else (((b-a) / real n)  
          * ( f(a) + f(a+(b-a) / real n)) ) / 2.0 +  
          integrate (f,a+((b-a) / real n),b,n-1);  
val integrate = fn : (real → real) * real * real * int  
    → real
```

```
- fun cube x:real = x * x * x ;  
val cube = fn : real -> real
```

```
- integrate ( cube , 0.0 , 2.0 , 10 ) ;  
val it = 4.04 : real
```



# Collect like in Java streams

```
- fun collect(B, combine, accept, nil) = accept(B)
  | collect(B, combine, accept, H::T) =
    collect(combine(B,H), combine, accept, T);

- fun average(aList) = collect((0,0),
  (fn ((total,count),X) => (total+X,count+1)),
  (fn (total,count) => real(total)/real(count)),
  aList);

- average [1, 2, 4];
val it = 2.3333333333333 : real
```

# Mutually recursive function definitions

```
- fun odd(n) = if n=0 then false  
                else even(n-1)
```

and

```
    even(n) = if n=0 then true  
                else odd(n-1);
```

```
val odd = fn : int -> bool  
val even = fn : int -> bool
```

```
- even(1);  
val it = false : bool  
- odd(1);  
val it = true : bool
```

# Sorting

- *Merge-Sort:*

- To sort a list L:

- first split L into two disjoint sublists (of about equal size),
- then (recursively) sort the sublists, and
- finally merge the (now sorted) sublists

- It requires suitable functions for

- splitting a list into two sublists AND
- merging two sorted lists into one sorted list

# Splitting

- We split a list by applying two functions, **take** and **skip**, which extract alternate elements; respectively, the elements at odd-numbered positions and the elements at even-numbered positions
- The definitions of the two functions mutually depend on each other, and hence provide an example of mutual recursion, as indicated by the SML-keyword **and**:

```
- fun take(L) =  
    if L = nil then nil  
    else hd(L)::skip(tl(L))  
  
and  
    skip(L) =  
        if L=nil then nil  
        else take(tl(L));  
  
val take = fn : 'a list -> 'a list  
val skip = fn : 'a list -> 'a list  
  
- take[1,2,3,4,5,6,7];  
val it = [1,3,5,7] : int list  
  
- skip[1,2,3,4,5,6,7];  
val it = [2,4,6] : int list
```

# Merging

- Merge pattern definition:

```
- fun merge([],R) = R
```

```
  | merge(L,[]) = L
```

```
  | merge(x::x1,y::y1) =
```

```
      if (x:int)<y then x::merge(x1,y::y1)
```

```
      else y::merge(x::x1,y1);
```

```
val merge = fn : int list * int list -> int list
```

```
- merge([1,5,7,9],[2,3,6,8,10]);
```

```
val it = [1,2,3,5,6,7,8,9,10] : int list
```

```
- merge([],[1,2]);
```

```
val it = [1,2] : int list
```

```
- merge([1,2],[]);
```

```
val it = [1,2] : int list
```

# Merge Sort

```
- fun sort(L) =  
  if L=[] orelse tl(L)=[] then L  
  else merge(sort(take(L)), sort(skip(L))) ;  
  
val sort = fn : int list -> int list  
  
- sort[5,3,6,2,1,9] ;  
val it = [1,2,3,5,6,9] : int list
```

# Local declarations

```
- fun gcd(N,M) = if N=M then N
  else if N>M then gcd(M,N-M)
  else gcd(N,M-N) ;
- fun fraction (n,d) =
  let val k = gcd (n,d)
  in
    ( n div k , d div k )
  end;
```

- 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

```
- fraction(10,25) ;
val it = (2,5) : int * int
```



# Sorting with comparison

- How to sort a list of elements of type  $\alpha$ ?
  - We need the **comparison function/operator** for elements of type  $\alpha$ !

```
- fun sort order [ ] = [ ]  
  | sort order [x] = [x]  
  | sort order xs =  
    let fun merge [ ] M = M  
        | merge L [ ] = L  
        | merge (L as x::xs) (M as y::ys) =  
          if order(x,y) then x::merge xs M  
          else y::merge L ys  
    in merge (sort order ys) (sort order xs) end;  
- sort (op >) [5.1, 3.4, 7.4, 0.3, 4.0] ;  
val it = [7.4,5.1,4.0,3.4,0.3] : real list
```

# Sorting with comparison

```
- fun split_helper(L: 'a list, Acc:'a list * 'a list)
    : 'a list * 'a list =
  if L=[] then Acc
  else split_helper(tl(L), (#2(Acc), (hd(L)) :: #1(Acc)));

- fun split(L) = split_helper(L, ([], []));

- split([1,2,3,4,5,6]);
split([1,2,3,4,5,6])
split_helper([1,2,3,4,5,6], ([], []))
split_helper([2,3,4,5,6], ([], [1]))
split_helper([3,4,5,6], ([1], [2]))
split_helper([4,5,6], ([2], [3,1]))
split_helper([5,6], ([3,1], [4,2]))
split_helper([6], ([4,2], [5,3,1]))
split_helper([], ([5,3,1], [6,4,2]))
([5,3,1], [6,4,2])
```

# Sorting with comparison

```
- fun split(L) = if L=[] orelse tl(L)=[] then (L,[])  
  else let val (L1,L2) = split(tl(tl(L)))  
    in (hd(L)::L1, hd(tl(L))::L2) end;
```

```
split([1,2,3,4,5,6])  
([5,3,1],[6,4,2])
```

# Quicksort

- C.A.R. Hoare, in 1962: Average-case running time:  $\Theta(n \log n)$

```
- fun sort [ ] = [ ]  
  | sort (x::xs) =  
    let val (S,B) = partition (x,xs)  
      in (sort S) @ (x :: (sort B))  
    end;
```

Double recursion and no tail-recursion

```
- fun partition (p,[ ]) = ([ ],[ ])  
  | partition (p,x::xs) =  
    let val (S,B) = partition (p,xs)  
      in if x < p then (x::S,B) else (S,x::B)  
    end
```

# Nested recursion

For  $m, n \geq 0$ :

`ack(0, m) = m + 1`

`ack(n, 0) = ack(n - 1, 1)` for  $n > 0$

`ack(n, m) = ack(n - 1, ack(n, m - 1))` for  $n, m > 0$

```
- fun acker 0 m = m+1
| acker n 0 = acker (n-1) 1
| acker n m = acker (n-1) (acker n (m-1));
```

It is guaranteed to end because of *lexicographic order*:

$(n', m') < (n, m)$  iff  $n' < n$  or  $(n' = n \text{ and } m' < m)$

# Nested recursion

- *Knuth's up-arrow operator*  $\uparrow^n$  (invented by Donald Knuth):

$$a \uparrow^1 b = a^b$$

$$a \uparrow^n b = a \uparrow^{n-1} (b \uparrow^{n-1} b) \text{ for } n > 1$$

- ```
fun opKnuth 1 a b = Math.pow (a,b)
    | opKnuth n a b = opKnuth (n-1) a
                        (opKnuth (n-1) b b);
```
  - ```
opKnuth 2 3.0 3.0 ;
```
  - ```
val it = 7.62559748499E12 : real
```
  - ```
opKnuth 3 3.0 3.0 ;
```
  - ! Uncaught exception: Overflow;
- *Graham's number* (also called the “largest” number):
  - ```
opKnuth 63 3.0 3.0,
```

# Recursion on a generalized problem

- It is impossible to determine whether  $n$  is prime via the reply to the question “is  $n - 1$  prime”?
  - It seems impossible to directly construct a recursive program
  - We thus need to find another function that is more general than prime, in the sense that prime is a particular case of this function
    - for which a recursive program can be constructed

```
- fun ndivisors n low up = low > up orelse  
  (n mod low) <> 0 andalso ndivisors n (low+1) up;  
- fun prime n = if n <= 0  
  then error "prime: non-positive argument"  
  else if n = 1 then false  
  else ndivisors n 2 floor(Math.sqrt(real n));
```

- The discovery of divisors requires imagination and creativity

# Tail recursion

```
- fun length [ ] = 0  
| length (x::xs) = 1 + length xs;
```

- The recursive call of **length** is nested in an expression: during the evaluation, all the terms of the sum are stored, hence the memory consumption for expressions & bindings is proportional to the length of the list!

```
length [5,8,4,3]  
-> 1 + length [8,4,3]  
-> 1 + (1 + length [4,3])  
-> 1 + (1 + (1 + length [3]))  
-> 1 + (1 + (1 + (1 + length [ ])))  
-----  
-> 1 + (1 + (1 + (1 + 0)))  
-> 1 + (1 + (1 + 1))  
-> 1 + (1 + 2)  
-> 1 + 3  
-> 4
```



# Tail recursion

```
- fun lengthAux [ ] acc = acc
| lengthAux (x::xs) acc = lengthAux xs (acc+1);
- fun length L = lengthAux L 0;
- length [5,8,4,3];
  -> lengthAux [5,8,4,3] 0
  -> lengthAux [8,4,3] (0+1)
  -> lengthAux [8,4,3] 1
  -> lengthAux [4,3] (1+1)
  -> lengthAux [4,3] 2
  -> lengthAux [3] (2+1)
  -> lengthAux [3] 3
  -> lengthAux [ ] (3+1)
  -> lengthAux [ ] 4
  -> 4
```

- *Tail recursion*: recursion is the outermost operation
  - **Space complexity: constant** memory consumption for expressions & bindings (SML can use the **same stack frame/activation record**)
  - Time complexity: (still) one traversal of the list

# Tail recursion

```
- fun factAux 0 acc = acc
  | factAux n acc = factAux (n-1) (n*acc);
- fun fact n =
  if n < 0 then error "fact: negative argument"
  else factAux n 1;

- fact(3);
-> factAux(3,1)
-> factAux(2,3)
-> factAux(1,6)
-> factAux(0,6)
6
```

# Records

- Records are structured data types of heterogeneous elements that are labeled
    - `{x=2, y=3};`
      - The order does not matter:
    - `{make="Toyota", model="Corolla", year=2017, color="silver"}`  
`= {model="Corolla", make="Toyota", color="silver", year=2017};`
- ```
val it = true : bool
```
- 
- `fun full_name{first:string, last:string, age:int, balance:real}:string =`  
 `first ^ " " ^ last;`  
 `(* ^ is the string concatenation operator *)`
- ```
val full_name=fn:{age:int, balance:real, first:string, last:string} -> string
```

# string and char

- "a";

val it = "a" : string

- #"a";

val it = #"a" : char

- explode("ab");

val it = ["a", "b"] : char list

- implode(["a", "b"]);

val it = "ab" : string

- "abc" ^ "def" = "abcdef";

val it = true : bool

- size ("abcd");

val it = 4 : int

# string and char

```
- String.sub("abcde",2) ;  
val it = # "c" : char  
  
- substring("abcdefghij",3,4) ;  
val it = "defg" : string  
  
- concat ["AB"," ","CD"] ;  
val it = "AB CD" : string  
  
- str(# "x") ;  
val it = "x" : string
```

# Functional programming in SML

- Covered fundamental elements:
  - Evaluation by reduction of expressions
  - Recursion
  - Polymorphism via type variables
  - Strong typing
  - Type inference
  - Pattern matching
  - Higher-order functions
  - Tail recursion

# Beyond functional programming

- *Relational programming* (aka *logic programming*)

- For which triples does the **append** relation hold?

```
append([], L, L) .
```

```
append([H|T], L, [H|T2]) :-
```

```
    append(T, L, T2) .
```

```
?- append([1,2], [3], X) .
```

Yes

```
X = [1,2,3]
```

```
?- append([1,2], X, [1,2,3]) .
```

```
X = [3]
```

```
?- append(X, Y, [1,2,3]) .
```

```
X = [], Y = [1,2,3];
```

```
X = [1], Y = [2,3];
```

```
...
```

```
X = [1,2,3], Y = [];
```

- No differentiation between arguments and results!

# Beyond functional programming

- *Backtracking* mechanism to enumerate all the possibilities
- *Unification* mechanism, as a generalization of pattern matching
- Power of the logic paradigm / relational framework



# Beyond functional programming

- ***Constraint Processing:***

- Constraint Satisfaction Problems (CSPs)

- Variables:  $X_1, X_2, \dots, X_n$
- Domains of the variables:  $D_1, D_2, \dots, D_n$
- Constraints on the variables: examples:  $3 \cdot X_1 + 4 \cdot X_2 \leq X_4$
- What is a solution?
  - An assignment to each variable of a value from its domain, such that all the constraints are **satisfied**

- **Objectives:**

- Find a solution
- Find all the solutions
- Find an optimal solution, according to some cost expression on the variables

# Beyond functional programming

- The n-Queens Problem:

- How to place  $n$  queens on an  $n \times n$  chessboard such that no queen is threatened?
- Variables:  $X_1, X_2, \dots, X_n$  (one variable for each column)
- Domains of the variables:  $D_i = \{1, 2, \dots, n\}$  (the rows)
- Constraints on the variables:
  - No two queens are in the same column: this is impossible by the choice of the variables!
- No two queens are in the same row:  $X_i \neq X_j$ , for each  $i \neq j$
- No two queens are in the same diagonal:  $|X_i - X_j| \neq |i - j|$ , for each  $i \neq j$
- Number of candidate solutions:  $n^n$

- Exhaustive Enumeration

- **Generation** of possible values of the variables.
- **Test** of the constraints.

- Optimization:

- Where to place a queen in column  $k$  such that it is compatible with  $r_{k+1}, \dots, r_n$ ?
- Eliminate possible locations as we place queens

# Beyond functional programming

- Applications:
  - Scheduling
  - Planning
  - Transport
  - Logistics
  - Games
  - Puzzles
- Complexity
  - Generally these problems are NP-complete with exponential complexity