

# SML

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# Objectives

- Functional Programming
- Standard ML of New Jersey (SML)
- **Dynamic Typing**
- Function Definitions in SML
- **Recursive Definitions**
- Operators on integers and reals
- Tuples
- **Polymorphic functions**
- **List Functions**
- Definition by Patterns
- **Higher-Order Functions**
- Function Composition
- **Currying** (partial application)
- Lazy evaluation
- Mutually recursive functions
- Local declarations
- Nested recursions
- **Tail recursion**
- Records, Strings and char
- Beyond functional programming

# 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, *lambda*, 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
- OR Use SML online:
  - <https://sosml.org/editor>
  - [https://www.tutorialspoint.com/execute\\_smlnj\\_online.php](https://www.tutorialspoint.com/execute_smlnj_online.php)

# 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)
- This is called "Read–eval–print loop" (REPL)

# 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 → 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:

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

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

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

- 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	

← unary operator minus is represented by ~

- 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>
+	:	real $\times$ real $\rightarrow$ real	infix	6
-	:	real $\times$ real $\rightarrow$ real	infix	6
*	:	real $\times$ real $\rightarrow$ real	infix	7
/	:	real $\times$ real $\rightarrow$ real	infix	7
<	:	real $\times$ real $\rightarrow$ bool	infix	4
<=	:	real $\times$ real $\rightarrow$ bool	infix	4
>	:	real $\times$ real $\rightarrow$ bool	infix	4
>=	:	real $\times$ real $\rightarrow$ bool	infix	4
~	:	real $\rightarrow$ real	prefix	
<b>abs</b>	:	real $\rightarrow$ real	prefix	
<b>Math.sqrt</b>	:	real $\rightarrow$ real	prefix	
<b>Math.In</b>	:	real $\rightarrow$ real	prefix	

# Basic operators on the reals

Equality for reals:

- `Real.==(1.0,1.0);`

`val it = true : bool`

- `Real.==(1.0,2.0);`

`val it = false : bool`

# Type conversions

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



# 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

- `tl([1]);`

**val it = [] : int list**

# Operations on Lists

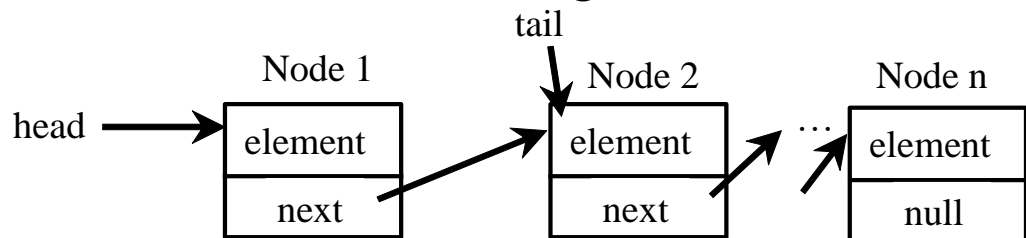
- SML provides various functions for manipulating lists
  - The function **hd** returns the first element of its argument list

```
- 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

- `::` is right associative:

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

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

- `1::(2::[])`;

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

- Once a type is inferred even empty list cannot change the type:

- `1::tl([true])`;

- `Error: operator and operand don't agree [overload conflict]`

- `operator domain: [int ty] * [int ty] list`

- `operand: [int ty] * bool list`

# 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`

- `t1[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.

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

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

```
- concat([true,false],[true]);
```

```
[true,false,true] : bool list
```

# Defining List Functions

- In defining such list functions, it is helpful to keep in mind that a list is either
  - an empty list  $[]$  or
  - of the form  $\mathbf{hd}(\mathbf{L}) :: \mathbf{tl}(\mathbf{L})$  if it contains at least an element

# Concatenation

- In designing a function for concatenating two lists **L1** and **L2** we thus distinguish two cases, depending on the form of **L1**:
  - If **L1** is an empty list **[ ]**, then concatenating **L1 = [ ]** with **L2** yields just **L2**.
  - If **L1** has at least 1 element, then concatenating **L1** with **L2** is a list of the form **hd(L1) :: L3**, where **L3** is the result of concatenating **tl(L1)** with **L2**.

# Concatenation

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

```
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 = 2 : int
```

```
- length[];
```

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



# Length

- How does it work?

```
- length([true, false, true, false]);  
= 1+ length([false, true, false])  
= 1+ 1+ length([true, false])  
= 1+ 1+ 1+length([false])  
= 1+ 1+ 1+ 1+ length([])  
= 1+ 1+ 1+ 1+ 0  
= 4
```

# Length

- A tail-recursive way to write length:
  - `fun length_helper(L,P) = if L=[] then P`  
`else length_helper(tl(L), P+1);`
  - `fun length(L) = length_helper(L,0);`
  - `length([true,false,true,false]);`  
`=length_helper([true,false,true,false],0)`  
`=length_helper([false,true,false],1)`  
`=length_helper([true,false],2)`  
`=length_helper([false],3)`  
`=length_helper([],4)`  
`= 4`

# 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
```

How does it work?

```
- 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)]);
```

Complexity analysis:

$$\begin{aligned}T(N) &= T(N-1) + (N-1) = \\ &\text{reverse}(tl(L)) \quad \text{concat} \\ &= T(N-2) + (N-2) + (N-1) = \\ &= 1 + 2 + 3 + \dots + N-1 = N * (N-1) / 2\end{aligned}$$

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

# 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(H::T) = reverse(T) @ [H];  
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(H,L) =  
    if L=[] then false  
    else if H=hd(L) then true  
    else member(H,tl(L));
```

OR with patterns:

```
fun member(H,[]) = false  
  | member(H,H2::T2) =  
    if (H=H2) then true  
    else member(H,T2);
```

```
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(H::T,L2) =  
    if member(H,L2) then union(T,L2)  
    else H::union(T,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(H::T,L2) =  
    if member(H,L2)  
    then H::intersection(T,L2)  
    else intersection(T,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],[2,3,5,10]); (* true *)
```

# Sets subset patterns

```
fun subset([],L2) = true
  | subset(L1,[]) = false
  | subset(H::T,L2) =
      if member(H,L2)
        then subset(T,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(H::T,L2) =  
    if member(H,L2)  
      then minus(T,L2)  
      else H::minus(T,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 []  
    else concat(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, H2::T2) =  
    (X, H2) :: product_one(X, T2) ;  
product_one(1, [2, 3]) ;    (* [(1, 2), (1, 3)] *)  
fun product([], L2) = []  
  | product(L1, []) = []  
  | product(H::T, L2) =  
    union(product_one(H, L2) ,  
          product(T, 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

- We want a function to compute the powerset of a set:

- `powerSet([1, 2, 3]) ;`

`[[], [1], [2], [3], [1, 2], [1, 3], [2, 3], [1, 2, 3]]`

- `powerSet([2, 3]) ;`

`[[], [2], [3], [2, 3]]`

- The recursive relation shows us that the powerset can be computed by computing the powerset of a tail and UNION it with the sets where the head is inserted in each subset in the powerset of the tail

`[[], [1], [2], [3], [1, 2], [1, 3], [2, 3], [1, 2, 3]]`

`= [ [], [2], [3], [2, 3] ] UNION`

`insert_all(1, [ [], [2], [3], [2, 3] ])`

`= [ [], [2], [3], [2, 3] ] UNION`

`[ [1], [1, 2], [1, 3], [1, 2, 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)) @ (* concat *)
    insert_all(hd(L), powerSet(tl(L)));
powerSet([]); (* [[]] *)
powerSet([1,2,3]); (* [[]], [1], [2], [3], [1,2],
  [1,3], [2,3], [1,2,3] *)
powerSet([2,3]); (* [[]], [2], [3], [2,3] *)
```

# Sets Powerset **patterns**

```
fun insert_all(E, []) = []  
  | insert_all(E, H2::T2) = (E::H2)::insert_all(E, T2);  
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]); (* [[]], [1], [2], [3], [1, 2],  
  [1, 3], [2, 3], [1, 2, 3] *)  
powerSet([2, 3]); (* [[]], [2], [3], [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,L) = if L=[] then []  
  else f(hd(L)) :: (map(f,tl(L)));
```

```
val map = fn : ('a -> 'b) * 'a list -> 'b list    OR
```

```
- fun map(f,[]) = []  
  | map(f,H::T) = f(H) :: map(f,T);
```

- 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
```

# 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
```

# 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
```

# Filter = findall

- *Filter* function: 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
```

# Find (first)

- 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) [~1, ~3, 5, 7];
```

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

```
- 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);
```

Note: This is called fold right (foldr) because the function is applied on returning.

```
- fun sumList aList = reduce (op +) 0 aList;
```

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

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

```
val it = 6 : int
```

# 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));
```

Note: This is called fold left (foldl) because the function is applied incrementally.

```
- fun sum(L:int list):int =  
  foldl((fn (X,Acc) => Acc+X), 0, L);  
- sum[1, 2, 3];
```

```
val it = 6 : int
```

- **foldl** walks the list from left to right while evaluating **f**
- **foldr** evaluates **f** on the way back: **f(H, reduce f B T)**

# foldr vs. foldl execution

- **foldr:**
- **sumList [1, 2, 3];**
- **1 + sumlist[2,3]**
- **1 + 2 + sumlist[3]**
- **1 + 2 + 3 + sumlist[]**
- **1 + 2 + 3 + 0**
- **1 + 2 + 3**
- **1 + 5**
- **6**
- **foldl:**
- **sum 0 [1, 2, 3];**
- **sum 1 [2, 3];**
- **sum 3 [3];**
- **sum 6 []**
- **6**

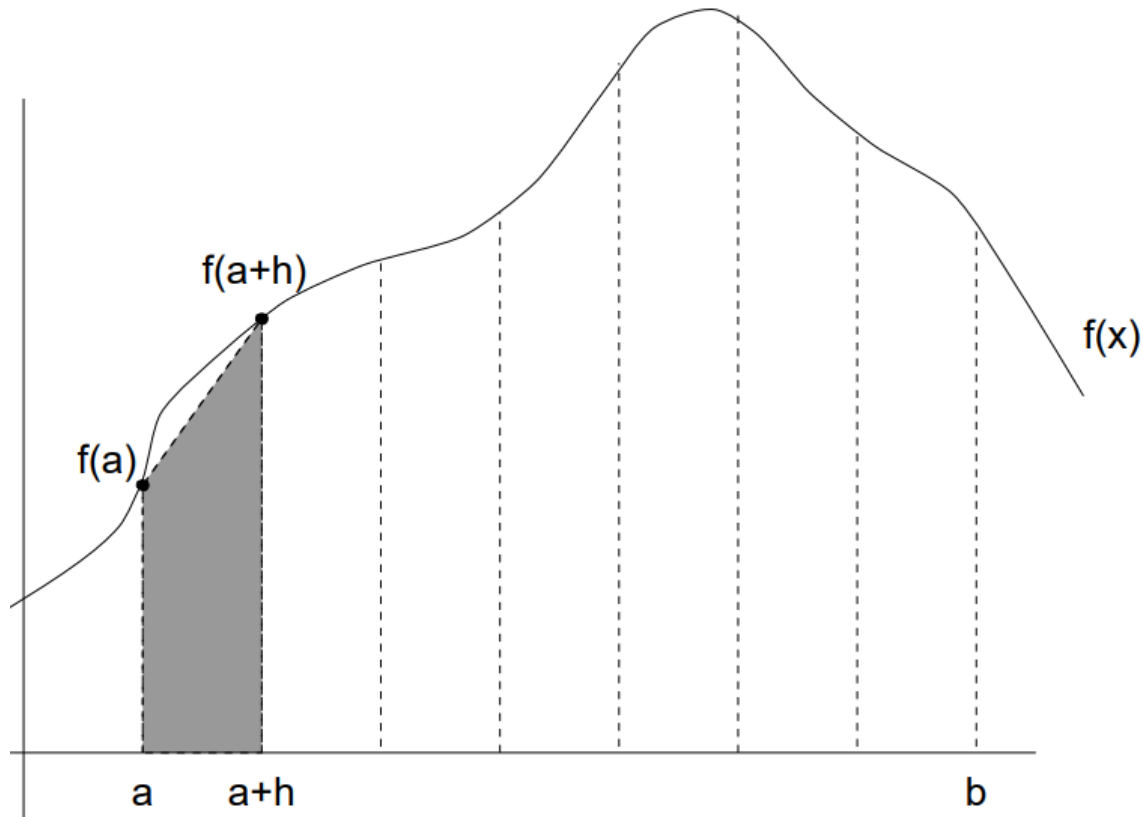


# Collect like in Java streams

- `fun collect(Acc, combine, accept, nil) = accept(Acc)`  
`| collect(Acc, combine, accept, H::T) =`  
`collect(combine(Acc,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`
- it is like `foldl`, but it also applies an `accept` function at the end

# Numerical integration

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



n intervals

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



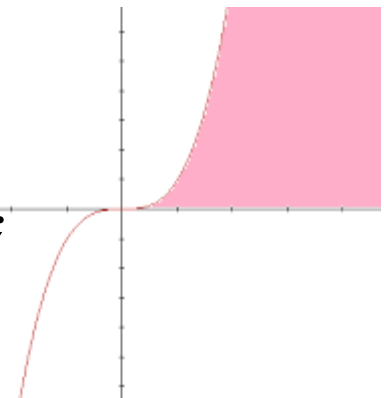
$$= h * ( f(a) + f(a+h) ) / 2$$

# 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
```



# Sum square 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) + 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 h = comp(Math.sin, Math.cos) ;
```

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

```
- h(0.25) ;
```

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

```
- Math.sin(Math.cos(0.25)) ;
```

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

**SAME WITH:**

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

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

```
- i(0.25) ;
```

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

# Permutations

- We want a function to return all permutations of a list:

```
- permutations([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
```

```
- permutations([2,3]);
```

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

- The recursive relation is to insert the head in every possible position in each permutation of the tail

- inserting **1** in **[2,3]** generates:

```
[1,2,3], [2,1,3], [2,3,1]
```

- inserting **1** in **[3,2]** generates:

```
[1,3,2], [3,1,2], [3,2,1]
```

# Permutations

```
- fun interleave(X, []) = [[X]]
  | interleave(X, H::T) =
    (X::H::T)::(
      map((fn L => H::L), interleave(X, T)));
```

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

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

```
- interleave(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 one level of the list

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

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

```
- fun permutations(nil) = [[]]
```

```
| permutations(H::T) = appendAll(  
  map((fn L => interleave(H,L)), permutations(T)));
```

```
- permutations([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
```



# Permutations

Without higher-order functions:

```
fun insertAllAux(E,L,Prefix,Result) = if L=[] then Result@([Prefix @ [E]])  
else insertAllAux(E,tl(L),Prefix@[hd(L)],Result@([Prefix@[E]@L]));
```

```
fun insertAll(E,L) = insertAllAux(E,L,[],[]);
```

```
insertAll(1,[2,3]);  
[[1,2,3],[2,1,3],[2,3,1]]
```

```
fun insertOneThenAll(E,P) = if P=[] then []  
else insertAll(E,hd(P)) @ insertOneThenAll(E,tl(P));
```

```
fun permutations(L) = if L=[] then [[]]  
else insertOneThenAll(hd(L),permutations(tl(L)));
```

```
permutations([1,2]);  
[[1,2],[2,1]]  
  
permutations([1,2,3]);  
[[1,2,3],[1,3,2],[2,1,3],[2,3,1],[3,1,2],[3,2,1]]
```

# *Currying* = partial application

- `fun sum A B = A + B;`

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

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

- `val inc1 = sum(1);`

`val inc1 = fn : int -> int`

- `inc1(3);`

`val it = 4 : int`

- `sum(1) (3);`

`val it = 4 : int`

# Currying = partial application

```
- 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 (SML): 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 (Haskell)*: delay evaluation until it is necessary.

```
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
- 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 than eager evaluation
- SML uses eager evaluation (like C and Java)
- Some languages, most notably Haskell, use only lazy evaluation

# 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(0);
```

```
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(H::T,H2::T2) =
```

```
    if (H:int)<H2 then H::merge(T,H2::T2)
```

```
    else H2::merge(H::T,T2);
```

```
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 T =
    let fun merge [ ] M = M
        | merge L [ ] = L
        | merge (L as H::T) (M as H2::T2) =
            if order(H,H2) then H::merge T M
            else H2::merge L T2
    in merge (sort order T2) (sort order T) 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 (H::T) =  
  let val (S,B) = partition (H,T)  
    in (sort S) @ (H :: (sort B))  
  end;
```

Double recursion and no tail-recursion

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

# Nested recursion

For  $m, n \geq 0$ :

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

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

`acker(n, m) = acker(n-1, acker(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 ( $n'=n$  and  $m' < m$ )`



# Nested recursion

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

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

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

```
- 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 ;
```

# Tail recursion

```
- fun length [ ] = 0
| length (H::T) = 1 + length T;
```

- 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 (H::T) acc = lengthAux T (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

# Optional: SML Extras: Records

- Records
- Strings and char

# 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!

# Logic programming

- *Backtracking* mechanism to enumerate all the possibilities
- *Unification* mechanism, as a generalization of pattern matching

# 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

- Example: 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

# Conclusion

- Conclusion for this course
  - That is all!
  - I hope that this course has sparked a lot of ideas and encourages you to exercise programming
- Thank you!