Programming Language Theory

Standard ML Tutorial\textsuperscript{1}

\textsuperscript{1}Adapted from slides and notes by John Reppy & Matthias Blume and Dan Grossman
What is Standard ML?

SML is a general-purpose functional programming language with
▶ strict evaluation
▶ strong and static typing
▶ polymorphic types
▶ type inference
▶ datatypes and pattern matching
▶ functional impurities (mutable objects, side-effects, exceptions)
▶ a sophisticated module system
▶ a rigorous formal definition
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What is Standard ML?

SML is a strongly and statically typed, impure, strict, functional language:

- **Strongly and statically typed**: Every expression in the language has a type (int, real, bool, etc.). The compiler rejects a program that does not conform to the type system.

- **Functional**: Every expression evaluates to a value. One kind of value is a function. In fact, every function is a value. Like other values, functions can be bound to variables, passed as arguments to function calls, returned as values from function calls, and stored in data structures.
What is Standard ML?

SML is a strongly and statically typed, impure, strict, functional language:

- **Impure** The evaluation of expressions in SML can incur *side-effects*, e.g., assignment to locations in mutable data structures or I/O.

- **Strict** The arguments to SML functions are evaluated before the function call is performed. Thus, if one of the arguments loops forever, then so does the entire program — regardless of whether or not the function actually needed the argument. Similarly, all side-effects caused by the evaluation of the argument occur before any side-effects caused by the evaluation of the function body.
What is Standard ML?

SML is a general-purpose functional programming language with

- strict evaluation
- strong and static typing
- polymorphic types
- type inference
- datatypes and pattern matching
- functional impurities (mutable objects, side-effects, exceptions)
- a sophisticated module system
- a rigorous formal definition
History of Standard ML

► 1978: ML (meta language)
  ▶ designed and implemented by Robin Milner et. al.
  ▶ a programming language for finding and performing proofs in a formal logical system (LCF)
  ▶ features to support writing proof tactics: higher-order functions, polymorphic types, exceptions

► 1978: Hindley-Milner, Damas-Milner type inference
  ▶ a.k.a., polymorphic type checking or Algorithm W
  ▶ automatically determine the (most general) types of variables

```ml
fun map f l =
  case l of nil => nil
         | (h::t) => (f h)::(map f t)

(*
val map :
  ('a -> 'b) -> 'a list -> 'b list
*)
```
History of Standard ML

- **1980: HOPE**
  - designed and implemented by Rod Burstal et. al.
  - pattern matching, early module systems

- **1981: MacQueen modules**
  - parametric module system for HOPE, inspired by CLEAR’s parameterized specifications
  - extended with novel method of specifying sharing of components among the structure parameters of a functor

- **1983: Standard ML**
  - Robert Harper, David MacQueen, Robin Milner
  - ML polymorphism, HOPE patterns, Cardelli records, Mycroft et. al. exceptions (generalizing ML exceptions), MacQueen modules
History of Standard ML

- **1990: The Definition of Standard ML**
  - Robin Milner, Mads Tofte, and Robert Harper
  - “A precise description of a programming language is a prerequisite for its implementation and for its use.”
  - formalization of syntax, static semantics, and dynamic semantics

- **1991: Commentary on Standard ML**
  - Robin Milner and Mads Tofte
History of Standard ML

- 1997: The Definition of Standard ML (Revised)
  - Robin Milner, Mads Tofte, Robert Harper, and David MacQueen
  - “A precise description of a programming language is a prerequisite for its implementation and for its use.”
  - formalization of syntax, static semantics, and dynamic semantics
  - < 120 pages (incl. contents, appendices, bibliography, index)
4.10 Inference Rules

**Match Rules**

\[
C \vdash \text{pat} \Rightarrow (V, E) \\
C + V \vdash \text{exp} \Rightarrow r' \\
\text{tynames} V E \subseteq T \text{ of } C \\
C + \text{pat} \Rightarrow \text{exp} \Rightarrow r \Rightarrow r'
\] (14)

Comment: This rule allows new free type variables to enter the context. These new type variables will be chosen, in effect, during the elaboration of \text{pat} (i.e., in the inference of the first hypothesis). In particular, their choice may have to be made to agree with type variables present in any explicit type expression occurring within \text{exp} (see rule 9).

**Declarations**

\[
C \vdash \text{dec} \Rightarrow E
\]

(15)

C \vdash \text{typedef} \Rightarrow TE

(16)

C \vdash \text{type typedef} \Rightarrow TE \in \text{Env}

(17)

C \vdash \text{typedef decl} \Rightarrow (V, E) \in \text{Env}

(18)

C \vdash \text{typedef decl} \Rightarrow (V, E) \in \text{Env}

(19)

C + V \vdash \text{decl} \Rightarrow (V, E) \in \text{Env}

(20)

C \vdash \text{exception decl} \Rightarrow V E \in \text{Env}

(21)

C \vdash \text{exception decl} \Rightarrow V E \in \text{Env}

(22)

C \vdash \text{exception decl} \Rightarrow V E \in \text{Env}

(23)
History of Standard ML

- 2004: The Standard ML Basis Library
  - Emden Gasner and John Reppy (eds)
  - “the fundamentals: primitive types such as integers and floating-point numbers, operations requiring runtime system or compiler support, such as I/O and arrays; and ubiquitous utility types such as booleans and lists. ... does not cover higher-level types, such as collection types, or application-oriented APIs, such as regular expression matching.”
The Standard ML Basis Library

http://www.standardml.org/Basis/
11.38. The PACK_WORD signature

The PackWordNBig and PackWordNLittle structures provide facilities for packing and unpacking N-bit word elements into Word8 vectors. This mechanism allows word values to be transmitted in binary format over networks. The PackWordNBig structures perform big-endian packing and unpacking, while the PackWordNLittle structures perform little-endian packing and unpacking.

Synopsis

signature PACK_WORD
structure PackWordNBig => PACK_WORD
structure PackWordNLittle => PACK_WORD

Interface

val bytesPerElem : int
val isBigEndian : bool
val subVec : Word8Vector.vector * int => LargeWord.word
val subVecX : Word8Vector.vector * int => LargeWord.word
val subArr : Word8Array.array * int => LargeWord.word
val subArrX : Word8Array.array * int => LargeWord.word
val update : Word8Array.array * int * LargeWord.word
  => unit

Description

val bytesPerElem : int

The number of bytes per element. Most implementations will provide several structures with values of bytesPerElem that are small powers of two (e.g., 1, 2, 4, and 8, corresponding to N of 8, 16, 32, 64, respectively).

val isBigEndian : bool

True if the structure implements a big-endian view of the data (most-significant byte first). Otherwise, the structure implements a little-endian view (least-significant byte first).

val subVec : Word8Vector.vector * int => LargeWord.word
val subVecX : Word8Vector.vector * int => LargeWord.word
val subArr : Word8Array.array * int => LargeWord.word
val subArrX : Word8Array.array * int => LargeWord.word
val subVec (vec, i)
val subVecX (vec, i)
val subArr (arr, i)
val subArrX (arr, i)

These extract the subvector

vec[bytesPerElem*i..bytesPerElem*(i+1)-1]

of the vector vec and convert it into a word according to the endianness of the structure. The subVecX version extends the sign bit (most significant bit) when converting the subvector to a word. The functions raise the Subscript exception if i < 0 or if |vec| < bytesPerElem * (i + 1).
History of Standard ML

- 2007: Defects in the Revised Definition of Standard ML
  - Andreas Rossberg
  - 14 pages
SML Implementations

▶ Standard ML of New Jersey
  ▶ http://www.smlnj.org
  ▶ continuation-passing style; incremental compilation and REPL
▶ MLton
  ▶ http://www.mlton.org
  ▶ whole-program optimization
▶ Poly/ML
  ▶ http://www.polyml.org
  ▶ very fast compilation; REPL
▶ ML Kit
  ▶ http://www.itu.dk/research/mlkit/index.php/Main_Page
  ▶ region-based memory management
▶ HaMLet
  ▶ http://www.mpi-sws.org/~rossberg/hamlet/
  ▶ reference interpreter (written in SML, following the Definition)
▶ MoscowML
  ▶ http://www.itu.dk/people/sestoft/mosml.html
  ▶ bytecode compiler (using Caml Light runtime system)
Using the SML/NJ Compiler

- Type `sml` to run the SML/NJ interactive compiler.
- `Ctrl-d` exits the compiler; `Ctrl-c` interrupts execution.
- Four ways to run ML programs:
  1. Type in code in the interactive read-eval-print loop
     - `1 + 1;`
  2. Load ML code from a file (e.g., `foo.sml`)
     - `use "foo.sml";`
  3. Use Compilation Manager (CM)
     - `CM.make "sources.cm";`
  4. Load/compile a program using one of the previous methods, then export a function to be run in a later session.
    - Course assignments will demonstrate this method.
Hello, World!

(* first program *)
val x = print "Hello, World!\n"

- A program is a sequence of bindings
- One kind of binding is a variable binding
- Execution evaluates bindings in order
- To evaluate a variable binding:
  - Evaluate the expression (to the right of =) in the environment created by the previous bindings.
  - This produces a value.
  - Extend the (top-level) environment, binding the variable to the value.
Theory Break

Some terminology and pedantry:

▶ Expressions are *evaluated* in an environment
▶ An *environment* maps variables to values
▶ Expressions are *type-checked* in a context
▶ A *context* maps variables to types

▶ *Values* are integers, strings, function-closures, . . .
  ▶ (“things already evaluated”)
▶ Expressions have evaluation rules and type-checking rules
Simple expressions

- **Integers**: 3, 54, ~3, ~54
- **Reals**: 3.0, 3.14159, ~3.6E00
- **Booleans**: true, false, not
- **Strings**: "abc", "hello world\n", x ~ ".sml"
- **Chars**: #"a", #"\n",
- **Overloaded operators**: +, −, *, <, <=
- **Lists**: [], [1,2,3], ["x","sml"], 1::2::nil
- **Tuples**: (), (1,true), (3,"abc",false)
- **Records**: {a=1,b=true}, {name="bob",age=8}
- **Conditionals, functions, function applications**

\(^2\text{floating-point numbers}\)
Value Declarations

Binding a value to a variable.

- **syntax**
  \[
  \text{val } \text{var } = \text{exp}
  \]

- **examples**
  ```
  val x = 3
  val y = x + 1
  val z = y - x
  ```

Thus, variables are identifiers that *name* values.

Once a binding for a variable is established, the variable names the *same* value until it goes out of scope.

Standard ML variables are *immutable*. 
Function Declarations

Binding a function (which is a value) to a variable.

▷ syntax (simplified)

\[
\text{fun } \text{var}f \ \text{var}a = \text{exp}
\]

▷ examples

\[
\begin{align*}
\text{fun } \text{fact} \ n & = \\
& \quad \text{if } n \leq 0 \ \text{then } 1 \\
& \quad \text{else } n \times \text{fact} \ (n - 1)
\end{align*}
\]

\[
\begin{align*}
\text{fun } \text{fact2}_\text{loop} \ (n, f) & = \\
& \quad \text{if } n = 0 \ \text{then } f \\
& \quad \text{else } \text{fact2}_\text{loop} \ (n - 1, n \times f)
\end{align*}
\]

\[
\text{fun } \text{fact2} \ n = \text{fact2}_\text{loop} \ (n, 1)
\]
Let expressions

Limit the scope of variables from declarations.

- syntax

  \[
  \text{let } \textit{decl} \text{ in } \textit{exp} \text{ end}
  \]

- example

  let
  
  \[
  \text{val } x = \text{ let } \text{val } y = 1 \\
  \text{in } y + y \\
  \text{end}
  \]

  \[
  \text{fun } f \text{ z } = (z, x * z)
  \]

  \[
  \text{in } \\
  f (4 + x) \\
  \text{end}
  \]
Function expressions

Introduce a function from one argument to one result. Such an *anonymous* function has no name, but is a value, so it can be bound to a variable.

► syntax (simplified)

\[
\text{fn } \textit{var} \Rightarrow \textit{exp}
\]

► example

\begin{verbatim}
val double = fn z => 2.0 * z
val inc = fn x => x + 1
\end{verbatim}

The last is equivalent to

\begin{verbatim}
fun inc x = x + 1
\end{verbatim}
Because functions are *first-class*,
one function can return another function as a result.

**Example**

```ml
val add = fn x => fn y => x + y
val inc = add 1 (* == fn y => 1 + y *)
val three = inc 2
```

The first is equivalent to

```ml
fun add x y = x + y
```

This is one “solution” to functions taking multiple arguments;
such functions are called *curried* functions.

Another “solution” is to take a value that is a data structure
containing multiple values.
Tuple and record expressions

Create collections of values.

- **tuples, syntax**
  
  \[ ( \text{exp}_1, \ldots, \text{exp}_n ) \]

- **tuples, examples**
  
  ```
  val x = ("foo", 1.0 / 2.0, false)
  val y = (x, x)
  ```

- **records, syntax**
  
  \[ \{ \text{lab}_1 = \text{exp}_1, \ldots, \text{lab}_n = \text{exp}_n \} \]

- **records, examples**
  
  ```
  val car = {make = "Toyota", year = 2001}
  ```
List expressions

Finite sequences of values.

▶ syntax

\[
\text{nil} \quad \quad \quad \quad \quad \text{exp}_x :: \text{exp}_1
\]
\[
\quad \quad \quad \quad \quad [\text{exp}_1, \ldots, \text{exp}_n]
\]

▶ examples

\begin{align*}
\text{val } l_0 & = \text{nil} \\
\text{val } l_1 & = 1.0 :: 2.0 :: 3.0 :: \text{nil} \\
\text{val } l_2 & = [1.0, 2.0, 3.0] \\
\text{val } l_3 & = 1.0 :: 2.0 :: [3.0]
\end{align*}

All of \( l_1 \), \( l_2 \), and \( l_3 \) are equivalent.
Patterns

Decompose compound values; commonly used in value bindings and function arguments.

- revised syntax for declarations and function expressions

  ```ml
  val pat = exp 
  fun var f pat a = exp 
  fn pat => exp
  ```

- variable patterns

  ```ml
  val z = 3 
  val pair = (z, true )
  ⇒ z = 3, pair = (3, true )
  ```

- tuple and record patterns

  ```ml
  val (x,y) = pair 
  ⇒ x = 3, y = true 
  val {make=mk, year=yr} = car 
  ⇒ mk = "Toyota", yr = 2001
  ```
Patterns (cont.)

- wildcard patterns
  
  \[ \text{val } _ = 4 \ast 3 \ast 2 \ast 1 \]

  \[ \Rightarrow \]

- constant patterns
  
  \[ \text{val } 3 = 1 + 2 \]
  \[ \text{val } \text{true} = 1 < 3 \]

- constructor patterns
  
  \[ \text{val } l = [1,2,3] \]
  \[ \text{val } \text{fst}::\text{rest} = l \]
  \[ \text{val } [x,_,z] = l \]

  \[ \Rightarrow \text{fst} = 1, \text{rest} = [2,3], x = 1, z = 3 \]
Patterns (cont.)

▶ nested patterns

```sml
define val ((x,y),z) = ((1,2),3)
define val (a,b)::_ = [(3.0,true),(5.0,false)]

⇒ x = 1, y = 2, z = 3
⇒ a = 3.0, b = true
```

▶ as patterns

```sml
define val l as (a,b)::_ = [(3.0,true),(5.0,false)]
define val t as (p as (x,y),z) = ((1,2),3)

⇒ l = [(3.0,true),(5.0,false)],
⇒ a = 3.0, b = true,
⇒ t = ((1,2),3), p = (1,2), x = 1,
⇒ y = 2, z = 3
```
Pattern matching

What to do when there is more than one way to decompose a value? Use *pattern matching* to consider each possible way.

- match rule, syntax

  \[ \text{pat} \Rightarrow \text{exp} \]

- match, syntax

  \[ \text{pat}_1 \Rightarrow \text{exp}_1 \mid \cdots \mid \text{pat}_n \Rightarrow \text{exp}_n \]

When a match is applied to a value \texttt{value}, we try the rules from left to right, looking for the first rule whose pattern matches \texttt{value}. We then bind the variables in the pattern and evaluate the expression.
Pattern matching (cont.)

Pattern matching is used in a number of expression and declaration forms.

- case expression, syntax
  
  ```
  case exp of match
  ```

- function expression, syntax
  
  ```
  fn match
  ```

- clausal function declaration, syntax
  
  ```
  fun var_f pat_1 = exp_1 | · · · | var_f pat_n = exp_n
  ```

  The function name \((\text{var}_f)\) is the same in all branches.
Pattern matching examples

fun length l = 
  case l of [] => 0
  | _ :: r => 1 + length r

fun length [] = 0
  | length (_ :: r) = 1 + length r

val isZero = fn 0 => true | _ => false

fun even 0 = true
  | even n = odd (n - 1)
and odd 0 = false
  | odd n = even (n - 1)
Types

Every expression has a type.

- primitive types: int, string, bool
  
  \[3 : \text{int} \quad \text{true} : \text{bool} \quad "abc" : \text{string}\]

- function types: \( ty_1 \rightarrow ty_2 \)
  
  \[\text{even} : \text{int} \rightarrow \text{bool}\]

- product types: \( ty_1 \times \cdots \times ty_n, \text{unit} \)
  
  \[(3, \text{true}) : \text{int} \times \text{bool} \quad () : \text{unit}\]

- record types: \{ lab_1: ty_1, \cdots, lab_n: ty_n \}
  
  \[\text{car} : \{ \text{make: string, year: int} \}\]

- type operators: \( ty \) list (for example)
  
  \[\{1,2,3\} : \text{int list}\]
Type abbreviations

Introduce a new name for a type.

Syntax

\[
\text{type } tycon = ty
\]

Examples

\[
\begin{align*}
\text{type } \text{point} & = \text{real } \ast \text{real} \\
\text{type } \text{line} & = \text{point } \ast \text{point} \\
\text{type } \text{car} & = \{ \text{make} : \text{string}, \text{year} : \text{int} \}
\end{align*}
\]

Syntax

\[
\text{type } \text{tyvar tycon} = ty
\]

Examples

\[
\begin{align*}
\text{type } 'a \text{ pair} & = 'a \ast 'a \\
\text{type } \text{point} & = \text{real } \text{pair}
\end{align*}
\]
Datatypes

Algebraic datatypes are one of the most useful and convenient features of Standard ML (and other functional programming languages).

They introduce a (brand) new type that is a tagged union of some number of variant types.

▶ syntax

\[
\text{datatype } \textit{tycon} = \textit{con}_1 \text{ of } \textit{ty}_1 | \cdots | \textit{con}_n \text{ of } \textit{ty}_n
\]

▶ example

```ml
datatype color = Red | Green | Blue
datatype shape =
  Circle of color * real
| Rectangle of color * real * real
```
Datatypes (cont.)

The data constructors can be used both in expressions to create values of the new type and in patterns to discriminate variants and to decompose values.

▶ example

```ml
fun area s = 
  case s of
    Circle (_, r) = Math.pi * r * r 
  | Rectangle (_, l1, l2) => l1 * l2

val c = Circle (Red, 2.0)
val a = area c
```

Datatypes can be recursive.

▶ example

```ml
datatype intlist = Nil | Cons of int * intlist
```
Datatype example

datatype int_btree = Leaf
  | Node of int_btree * int * int_btree

fun depth t =
  case t of
    Leaf => 0
  | Node (l, _, r) => 1 + max (depth l, depth r)

fun insert t i =
  case t of
    Leaf => Node (Leaf, i, Leaf)
  | Node (l,j,r) =>
    if i=j then t
    else if i < j
      then Node (insert l i,j,r)
    else Node (l,j,insert r i)
Datatype example

datatype int_btree = Leaf
  | Node of int_btree * int * int_btree

(* in-order traversal of trees *)

fun inttreeToList t =
  case t of
    Leaf => []
  | Node (l, i, r) =>
      (inttreeToList l) @ [i] @ (inttreeToList r)
Representing programs as datatypes

type var = string

datatype exp = Var of var (* x *)
  | Num of int (* 1 *)
  | Plus of exp * exp (* e1 + e2 *)
  | Times of exp * exp (* e1 * e2 *)
datatype stmt = Seq of stmt * stmt (* s1 ; s2 *)
  | Assign of var * exp (* x := e *)
  | Print of exp list (* print (e1,...) *)

val prog =
  Seq (Assign ("a", Plus (Num 5, Num 3)),
       Print [Var "a"])
(* a := 5 + 5 ; print (a) *)
Computing properties of programs: size

fun sizeE (Var _) = 1
  | sizeE (Num _) = 1
  | sizeE (Plus (e1, e2)) = sizeE e1 + sizeE e2 + 1
  | sizeE (Times (e1, e2)) = sizeE e1 + sizeE e2 + 1

fun sizeEL [] = 0
  | sizeEL (e::es) = sizeE e + sizeEL es

fun sizeS (Seq (s1,s2)) = sizeS s1 + sizeS s2 + 1
  | sizeS (Assign (_,e)) = 2 + sizeE e
  | sizeS (Print es) = 1 + sizeEL es

sizeS prog ⇒ 8
Type inference

When defining values (including functions), types do not need to be declared — they will be *inferred* by the compiler:

- fun f x = x + 1;
  val f = fn : int -> int

- fun isPos n = n > 0
  val isPos = fn : int -> bool

Any inconsistencies will be detected as type errors.

- if 1 < 2 then 3 else "four";
  stdIn:1.1-1.25 Error: types of if branches do not agree
    then branch: int
    else branch: string
  in expression:
    if 1 < 2 then 3 else "four"

Some error messages are better than others....
Type inference (cont.)

Type inference works with \textit{all} types in the language.

\begin{center}
\begin{verbatim}
- fun area (Circle (_,r)) = Math.pi * r * r
  = | area (Rectangle (_,l1,l2)) = l1 * l2;
val area = fn : shape -> real
\end{verbatim}
\end{center}

Overloaded operators default to \texttt{int};
use type annotations (called \texttt{ascriptions}) to be explicit.

\begin{center}
\begin{verbatim}
- fun add (x, y) = x + y;
val add = fn : int * int -> int
- fun addR (x: real, y) = x + y;
val addR = fn : real * real -> real
\end{verbatim}
\end{center}
Polymorphic type inference

Type inference produces the *most general* type, which may be *polymorphic*.

- `fun ident x = x;
val ident = fn : 'a -> 'a`

- `fun pair x = (x, x);
val pair = fn : 'a -> 'a * 'a`

- `val fst = fn (x, y) => x
val fst = fn : 'a * 'b -> 'a`

- `val foo = pair 4.0;
val foo = (4.0, 4.0) : real * real`

`pair` was used at the type `real -> real * real`.

- `val z = fst foo;
val z = 4.0 : real`

`fst` was used at the type `real * real -> real`.
Polymorphic datatypes

datatype 'a btree = Leaf
          | Node of 'a btree * 'a * 'a btree

fun depth t =
  case t of
  Leaf => 0
  | Node (l, _, r) => 1 + max (depth l, depth r)
val depth = fn : 'a btree -> int

fun btreeToList t =
  case t of
  Leaf => []
  | Node (l, x, r) =>
      (btreeToList l) @ [x] @ (btreeToList r)
val btreeToList = fn : 'a btree -> 'a list

fun btreeMap f Leaf = Leaf
  | btreeMap f (Node (l, x, r)) =
      Node (btreeMap f l, f x, btreeMap f r)
val btreeMap = fn : ('a -> 'b) -> 'a btree -> 'b btree
Closure idioms

Closure: Function plus environment where function was defined

- Environment matters when function has free variables

1. Create similar functions
2. Combine functions
3. Pass functions with private data to iterators
4. Provide an abstract data type
5. Currying and partial application
Create similar functions

fun addn m n = m + n

val add_one = addn 1
val add_two = addn 2

fun mkAddList m = 
  if m = 0
    then []
  else (addn m)::(mkAddList (m-1))

val lst65432 = map (fn add => add 1) (mkAddList 5)
Combine functions

fun f1 g h = (fn x => g (h x)) (* compose *)

datatype 'a option = NONE | SOME of 'a (* predefined *)

fun f2 g h x =
  case g x of
    NONE => h x
  | SOME y => y

val printInt = f1 print Int.toString

fun truncate1 lim f = f1 (fn x => Real.min (lim, x)) f
fun map f lst =
    case lst of
    [] => []
    | h::t => (f h) :: (map f t)

fun incr lst = map (fn x => x+1) lst
val incr = map (fn x => x + 1)

fun mul i lst = map (fn x => x * i) lst
fun mul i = map (fn x => x * i)
A more powerful iterator

fun foldl f acc lst =
  case lst of
    [] => acc
    | h::t => foldl f (f (h, acc)) t

val f1 = foldl (fn (x, y) => x + y) 0
val f2 = foldl (fn (x, y) => y andalso x > 0) true

fun f3 lo hi lst =
  foldl (fn (x, y) => if x>lo andalso x<hi
        then y+1 else y)
         0
    lst
Thoughts on fold

- Functions like `foldl` decouple recursive traversal ("walking") from data processing
- No unnecessary type restrictions
- Similar to visitor pattern in OOP
  - Private fields of visitor like free variables
Provide an ADT

This is difficult stuff.

datatype intset = ISET of { add : int -> intset,
                           member : int -> bool }

val empty_set =
  let
    fun exists (lst: int list) j =
      let fun iter rest =
        case rest of
          [] => false
        | h::t => j=h orelse iter t
      in  iter lst
    end
    fun make_set lst =
      ISET {add = fn i => (make_set(i::lst)),
            member = exists lst }
  in  make_set []
end
Thoughts on ADT example

- By “hiding the list” behind the functions, we know clients do not assume anything about the representation

- Why? All you can do with a function is apply it
  - No other primitives on functions
  - No reflection
  - No aspects
  - …
Currying

- We’ve been using currying and partial application a lot
  - Efficient and convenient in SML
    - (efficiency depends upon compiler; most are very good)

- Remember: the semantics is to build closures.

```sml
define f = fn x => (fn y => (fn z => ...))
define a = ((f 1) 2) 3
```
Exceptions

- 5 div 0; (* primitive failure *)
uncaught exception Div

eception NotFound of string (* declare new exception *)
type 'a dict = (string * 'a) list
fun lookup (s, nil) = raise (NotFound s)
  | lookup (s, (k,v)::rest) =
    if s = k then v else lookup (s, rest)
val lookup : string * 'a dict -> 'a

val d = [("foo",2), ("bar",~1)]
val d : (string * int) list (* == int dict *)

val x = lookup ("foo", d)
val x = 2 : int

val y = lookup ("baz", d)
uncaught exception NotFound

val y = lookup ("baz", d) handle NotFound s =>
  (print ("NotFound: " ^ s ^ "\n") ; 0)
NotFound: baz
val y = 0 : int
Although SML variables are immutable, SML provides a type of mutable cells.

```
type 'a ref
val ref : 'a -> 'a ref
val ! : 'a ref -> 'a
val := : 'a ref * 'a -> unit

val lineNum = ref 0; (* create mutable cell *)
val lineNum = ref 0 : int ref

fun lineCount () = ! lineNum; (* access mutable cell *)
fun lineCount = fn : unit -> int

fun newline () = lineNum := ! lineNum + 1; (* increment the cell *)
fun newline = fn : unit -> unit

val lineNum = ref 0; (* create mutable cell *)
val lineNum = ref 0 : int ref
```
SML variables are immutable:

```sml
local
  val x = 1
in
  fun new1 () = let val x = x + 1 in x end
end
```

`new1` always returns 2.

SML references are mutable:

```sml
local
  val x = ref 1
in
  fun new2 () = (x := !x + 1; !x)
end
```

`new2` returns 2, 3, 4, ... on successive calls.
Standard ML = Core Language + Module Language

SML is made up of two sub-languages

- core language:
  - expressing types and computations

- module language
  - packaging elements of core language into units for modularity and reuse

The module language is a *language*:

- it has non-trivial static and dynamic semantics.
- It is not simply a namespace management veneer.
Standard ML: Module Language

- **Structures**
  - an encapsulated, named, collection of (type and value) declarations

- **Signatures**
  - an encapsulated, named, collection of specifications
  - classify structures

- **Functors**
  - an encapsulated, named, function from structures to structures

To a rough approximation, the Standard ML module language is a first-order language with no conditionals or recursion.

- *not* Turing complete
- evaluate module language program at compile-time (MLton, MLKit)

---

3Proposals for higher-order functors; still strongly normalizing.
Structures

A structure collects type and value declarations into a nameable module.

```ml
structure UniqueId = struct
  type id = int
  val ctr = ref 0
  fun new() = let
    val i = !ctr
    val () = ctr := i + 1
  in
    i
  end
  fun toString i = "id" ^ (Int.toString i)
  fun compare (i1, i2) = Int.compare (i1, i2)
end
```
Access structure components via *dot* notation:

```sml
case: val a = UniqueId.new ()
case: val b = UniqueId.new ()
case: val aStr = UniqueId.toString a
  val bStr = UniqueId.toString b
```
Structures

A structure collects type and value and structure declarations into a nameable module.

```sml
structure UniqueId = struct
  structure Counter = struct
    type ctr = int ref
    fun new() = ref 0
    fun next(ctr) = let
      val i = !ctr
      val () = ctr := i
    in
      i
    end
  end
  type id = int
  val ctr = Counter.new ()
  fun new() = Counter.next ctr
  fun toString i = "id" ^ (Int.toString i)
  fun compare (i1, i2) = Int.compare (i1, i2)
end
```
Signatures

A signature is the “type” of a structure:

▶ specification of types in structure
▶ type of values in structure
▶ signature of sub-structures in structure

signature UNIQUE_ID = sig
  type id = int
  val ctr : int ref
  val new : unit -> id
  val toString : id -> string
  val compare : id * id -> order
end
Signatures

A signature is the “type” of a structure:

- specification of types in structure
- type of values in structure
- signature of sub-structures in structure

```plaintext
signature UNIQUE_ID = sig
    structure Counter : sig
        type ctr = int ref
        val new : unit -> ctr
        val next : ctr -> int
    end
    type id = int
    val ctr : Counter.ctr
    val new : unit -> id
    val toString : id -> string
    val compare : id * id -> order
end
```
Signatures

A signature is the “type” of a structure:

- specification of types in structure
- type of values in structure
- signature of sub-structures in structure

```ocaml
signature UNIQUE_ID = sig
  structure Counter : sig
    type ctr = int ref
    val new : unit -> ctr
    val next : ctr -> int
  end
  type id = int
  val ctr : Counter.ctr
  val new : unit -> id
  val toString : id -> string
  val compare : id * id -> order
end
```

Have I said too much?
Signatures

A signature is the “type” of a structure:
- specification of types in structure
- type of values in structure
- signature of sub-structures in structure

```ml
signature UNIQUE_ID = sig
  type id
  val new : unit -> id
  val toString : id -> string
  val compare : id * id -> order
end
```
Signature matching

A structure matches a signature if every specification in the signature is satisfied by a component of the structure. After matching, only specifications in the signature are available in the structure.

```sml
signature UNIQUE_ID = sig
  type id
  val new : unit -> id
  val toString : id -> string
  val compare : id * id -> order
end
structure UniqueID : UNIQUE_ID = struct
  ...
end
val ctr = UniqueId.ctr (* ERROR *)
```
Transparent signature matching

A transparent signature match (:) \textit{reveals} the implementation of types, even if their implementation is not specified in the signature.

signature UNIQUE_ID = sig
  type id
  val new : unit -> id
  val toString : id -> string
  val compare : id * id -> order
end
structure UniqueID : UNIQUE_ID = struct
  ...
end
val aId = UniqueID.new ()
val z = aId + aId

UniqueId.id is considered equivalent to \texttt{int}.
Opaque signature matching

An opaque signature match (\(\Rightarrow\)) does not reveal the implementation.

```
signature UNIQUE_ID = sig
  type id
  val new : unit -> id
  val toString : id -> string
  val compare : id * id -> order
end
structure UniqueID :> UNIQUE_ID = struct
  ...
end
val aId = UniqueID.new ()
val z = aId + aId (* ERROR *)
```

UniqueId.id is considered a new type, distinct from all other types (including int).
Functors

A functor parameterizes a structure with respect to an input signature.

```ml
functor TestUniqueId (structure UIid : UNIQUE_ID) = struct
  val aId = UIid.new ()
  val bId = UIid.new ()
  val cId = UIid.new ()
  val result =
    (UIid.compare (aId, aId) = EQUAL) andalso
    (UIid.compare (bId, bId) = EQUAL) andalso
    (UIid.compare (cId, cId) = EQUAL) andalso
    (UIid.compare (aId, bId) <> EQUAL) andalso
    (UIid.compare (bId, aId) <> EQUAL) andalso
    (UIid.compare (aId, cId) <> EQUAL) andalso
    (UIid.compare (cId, aId) <> EQUAL) andalso
    (UIid.compare (bId, cId) <> EQUAL) andalso
    (UIid.compare (cId, bId) <> EQUAL)
end
```
Functors

A functor parameterizes a structure with respect to an input signature.

signature ORDER = sig
  type t
  val compare : t * t -> order
end
signature DICTIONARY = sig
  type key
  type 'a t
  exception DictExn
  val empty : 'a t
  val lookup : 'a t * key -> 'a t
  val insert : 'a t * key * 'a -> 'a t
  val update : 'a t * key * 'a -> 'a t
end
functor ListDictionary(struct Key: ORDER)
  : DICTIONARY = struct
... end
Functors

A functor parameterizes a structure with respect to an input signature.

```ml
signature ORDER = sig
  type t
  val compare : t * t -> order
end
signature DICTIONARY = sig
  type key
  type 'a t
  exception DictExn
  val empty : 'a t
  val lookup : 'a t * key -> 'a t
  val insert : 'a t * key * 'a -> 'a t
  val update : 'a t * key * 'a -> 'a t
end
functor BTreeDictionary (struct Key: ORDER) :
  DICTIONARY = struct
  ...
end
```
Functors

A functor parameterizes a structure with respect to an input signature.

```sml
signature ORDER = sig
  type t
  val compare : t * t -> order
end
signature DICTIONARY = sig
  type key
  type 'a t
  exception DictExn
  val empty : 'a t
  val lookup : 'a t * key -> 'a t
  val insert : 'a t * key * 'a -> 'a t
  val update : 'a t * key * 'a -> 'a t
end
functor RBTreeDictionary (struct Key: ORDER)
  : DICTIONARY = struct
... end
```

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Functors

A functor parameterizes a structure with respect to an input signature. Sophisticated type refinement machinery to express relationships between types in input signature and output structure.

```sml
functor RBTreeDictionary (struct Key : ORDER)
  :> DICTIONARY where type key = Key.t = struct

end
```

A dictionary is an abstract type, so want to hide the implementation of 'a t using an opaque signature constraint. But, that would also hide the implementation of key, making the resulting structure unusable. We add a constraint to the output signature to reveal the implementation of key, insofar as it is equivalent to the input Key.t.
Functors

*Fully-functorial programming*

- code almost entirely with functors
- functors and signatures are self-contained, refer only to other signatures and to pervasive components (e.g., the Standard Basis Library)
- all non-trivial program units coded as functors that can be written and separately compiled
- one link structure: applies functors to produce one structure containing the executable program