

A Second Look At ML

Outline

- Patterns
- Local variable definitions
- A sorting example

Two Patterns You Already Know

- We have seen that ML functions take a single parameter:

```
fun f n = n*n;
```

- We have also seen how to specify functions with more than one input by using tuples:

```
fun f (a, b) = a*b;
```

- Both **n** and **(a, b)** are *patterns*. The **n** matches and binds to any argument, while **(a, b)** matches any 2-tuple and binds **a** and **b** to its components

Underscore As A Pattern

```
- fun f _ = "yes";  
val f = fn : 'a -> string  
- f 34.5;  
val it = "yes" : string  
- f [];  
val it = "yes" : string
```

- The underscore can be used as a pattern
- It matches anything, but does not bind it to a variable
- Preferred to:

```
fun f x = "yes";
```

Constants As Patterns

```
- fun f 0 = "yes";  
Warning: match nonexhaustive  
      0 => ...  
val f = fn : int -> string  
- f 0;  
val it = "yes" : string
```

- Any constant of an equality type can be used as a pattern
- But not:

```
fun f 0.0 = "yes";
```

Non-Exhaustive Match

- In that last example, the type of **f** was **int -> string**, but with a “match non-exhaustive” warning
- Meaning: **f** was defined using a pattern that didn't cover all the domain type (**int**)
- So you may get runtime errors like this:

```
- f 0;  
val it = "yes" : string  
- f 1;  
uncaught exception nonexhaustive match failure
```

Lists Of Patterns As Patterns

```
- fun f [a, _] = a;  
Warning: match nonexhaustive  
       a :: _ :: nil => ...  
val f = fn : 'a list -> 'a  
- f ["f", "g"];  
val it = #"f" : char
```

- You can use a list of patterns as a pattern
- This example matches any list of length 2
- It treats **a** and **_** as sub-patterns, binding **a** to the first list element

Cons Of Patterns As A Pattern

```
- fun f (x::xs) = x;
Warning: match nonexhaustive
           x :: xs => ...
val f = fn : 'a list -> 'a
- f [1,2,3];
val it = 1 : int
```

- You can use a cons of patterns as a pattern
- **x::xs** matches any non-empty list, and binds **x** to the head and **xs** to the tail
- Parens around **x::xs** are for precedence

ML Patterns So Far

- A variable is a pattern that matches anything, and binds to it
- A `_` is a pattern that matches anything
- A constant (of an equality type) is a pattern that matches only that constant
- A tuple of patterns is a pattern that matches any tuple of the right size, whose contents match the sub-patterns
- A list of patterns is a pattern that matches any list of the right size, whose contents match the sub-patterns
- A `cons (: :)` of patterns is a pattern that matches any non-empty list whose head and tail match the sub-patterns

Multiple Patterns for Functions

```
- fun f 0 = "zero"  
= |   f 1 = "one";  
Warning: match nonexhaustive  
         0 => ...  
         1 => ...  
val f = fn : int -> string;  
- f 1;  
val it = "one" : string
```

- You can define a function by listing alternate patterns

Syntax

$\langle \text{fun-def} \rangle ::= \mathbf{fun} \langle \text{fun-bodies} \rangle ;$

$\langle \text{fun-bodies} \rangle ::= \langle \text{fun-body} \rangle$

$| \langle \text{fun-body} \rangle ' | ' \langle \text{fun-bodies} \rangle$

$\langle \text{fun-body} \rangle ::= \langle \text{fun-name} \rangle \langle \text{pattern} \rangle = \langle \text{expression} \rangle$

- To list alternate patterns for a function
- You must repeat the function name in each alternative

Overlapping Patterns

```
- fun f 0 = "zero"  
= |   f _ = "non-zero";  
val f = fn : int -> string;  
- f 0;  
val it = "zero" : string  
- f 34;  
val it = "non-zero" : string
```

- Patterns may overlap
- ML uses the first match for a given argument

Pattern-Matching Style

- These definitions are equivalent:

```
fun f 0 = "zero"  
|   f _ = "non-zero";  
fun f n =  
    if n = 0 then "zero"  
    else "non-zero";
```

- But the pattern-matching style usually preferred in ML
- It often gives shorter and more legible functions

Pattern-Matching Example

Original (from Chapter 5):

```
fun fact n =  
  if n = 0 then 1 else n * fact(n-1) ;
```

Rewritten using patterns:

```
fun fact 0 = 1  
  | fact n = n * fact(n-1) ;
```

Pattern-Matching Example

Original (from Chapter 5):

```
fun reverse L =  
  if null L then nil  
  else reverse (tl L) @ [hd L];
```

Improved using patterns:

```
fun reverse nil = nil  
  | reverse (first::rest) =  
    reverse rest @ [first];
```

More Examples

This structure occurs frequently in recursive functions that operate on lists: one alternative for the base case (**nil**) and one alternative for the recursive case (**first::rest**).

Adding up all the elements of a list:

```
fun f nil = 0  
| f (first::rest) = first + f rest;
```

Counting the true values in a list:

```
fun f nil = 0  
| f (true::rest) = 1 + f rest  
| f (false::rest) = f rest;
```

More Examples

Making a new list of integers in which each is one greater than in the original list:

```
fun f nil = nil  
| f (first::rest) = first+1 :: f rest;
```

A Restriction

- You can't use the same variable more than once in the same pattern

- This is not legal:

```
fun f (a, a) = ... for pairs of equal elements  
| f (a, b) = ... for pairs of unequal elements
```

- You must use this instead:

```
fun f (a, b) =  
  if (a=b) then ... for pairs of equal elements  
  else ... for pairs of unequal elements
```

The `polyEqual` Warning

```
- fun eq (a,b) = if a=b then 1 else 0;  
Warning: calling polyEqual  
val eq = fn : 'a * 'a -> int  
- eq (1,3);  
val it = 0 : int  
- eq ("abc", "abc");  
val it = 1 : int
```

- Warning for an equality comparison, when the runtime type cannot be resolved
- OK to ignore: this kind of equality test is inefficient, but can't always be avoided

Patterns Everywhere

```
- val (a,b) = (1,2.3);  
val a = 1 : int  
val b = 2.3 : real  
- val a::b = [1,2,3,4,5];  
Warning: binding not exhaustive  
      a :: b = ...  
val a = 1 : int  
val b = [2,3,4,5] : int list
```

- Patterns are not just for function definition
- Here we see that you can use them in a **val**
- More ways to use patterns, later

Outline

- Patterns
- Local variable definitions
- A sort example

Local Variable Definitions

- When you use **val** at the top level to define a variable, it is visible from that point forward
- There is a way to restrict the scope of definitions: the **let** expression

<let-exp> ::= **let** *<definitions>* **in** *<expression>* **end**

Example with **let**

```
- let val x = 1 val y = 2 in x+y end;  
val it = 3 : int;  
- x;  
Error: unbound variable or constructor: x
```

- The value of a **let** expression is the value of the expression in the **in** part
- Variables defined with **val** between the **let** and the **in** are visible only from the point of declaration up to the **end**

Proper Indentation for **let**

```
let
  val x = 1
  val y = 2
in
  x+y
end
```

- For readability, use multiple lines and indent **let** expressions like this
- Some ML programmers put a semicolon after each **val** declaration in a **let**

Long Expressions with **let**

```
fun days2ms days =  
  let  
    val hours = days * 24.0  
    val minutes = hours * 60.0  
    val seconds = minutes * 60.0  
  in  
    seconds * 1000.0  
  end;
```

- The **let** expression allows you to break up long expressions and name the pieces
- This can make code more readable

Patterns with **let**

```
fun halve nil = (nil, nil)
|   halve [a] = ([a], nil)
|   halve (a::b::cs) =
    let
        val (x, y) = halve cs
    in
        (a::x, b::y)
    end;
```

- By using patterns in the declarations of a **let**, you can get easy “deconstruction”
- This example takes a list argument and returns a pair of lists, with half in each

Again, Without Good Patterns

```
let
  val halved = halve cs
  val x = #1 halved
  val y = #2 halved
in
  (a::x, b::y)
end;
```

- In general, if you find yourself using **#** to extract an element from a tuple, think twice
- Pattern matching usually gives a better solution

halve At Work

```
- fun halve nil = (nil, nil)
= |   halve [a] = ([a], nil)
= |   halve (a::b::cs) =
=       let
=         val (x, y) = halve cs
=       in
=         (a::x, b::y)
=       end;
val halve = fn : 'a list -> 'a list * 'a list
- halve [1];
val it = ([1], []) : int list * int list
- halve [1,2];
val it = ([1],[2]) : int list * int list
- halve [1,2,3,4,5,6];
val it = ([1,3,5],[2,4,6]) : int list * int list
```

Outline

- Patterns
- Local variable definitions
- A sort example

Merge Sort

- The **halve** function divides a list into two nearly-equal parts
- This is the first step in a merge sort
- For practice, we will look at the rest

Example: Merge

```
fun merge (nil, ys) = ys
| merge (xs, nil) = xs
| merge (x::xs, y::ys) =
    if (x < y) then x :: merge(xs, y::ys)
    else y :: merge(x::xs, ys);
```

- Merges two sorted lists
- Note: default type for < is **int**

Merge At Work

```
- fun merge (nil, ys) = ys
= |   merge (xs, nil) = xs
= |   merge (x::xs, y::ys) =
=       if (x < y) then x :: merge(xs, y::ys)
=       else y :: merge(x::xs, ys);
val merge = fn : int list * int list -> int list
- merge ([2],[1,3]);
val it = [1,2,3] : int list
- merge ([1,3,4,7,8],[2,3,5,6,10]);
val it = [1,2,3,3,4,5,6,7,8,10] : int list
```

Example: Merge Sort

```
fun mergeSort nil = nil
| mergeSort [a] = [a]
| mergeSort theList =
    let
        val (x, y) = halve theList
    in
        merge(mergeSort x, mergeSort y)
    end;
```

- Merge sort of a list
- Type is **int list -> int list**,
because of type already found for **merge**

Merge Sort At Work

```
- fun mergeSort nil = nil
= | mergeSort [a] = [a]
= | mergeSort theList =
=   let
=     val (x, y) = halve theList
=   in
=     merge(mergeSort x, mergeSort y)
=   end;
val mergeSort = fn : int list -> int list
- mergeSort [4,3,2,1];
val it = [1,2,3,4] : int list
- mergeSort [4,2,3,1,5,3,6];
val it = [1,2,3,3,4,5,6] : int list
```

Nested Function Definitions

- You can define local functions, just like local variables, using a **let**
- You should do it for helper functions that you don't think will be useful by themselves
- We can hide **halve** and **merge** from the rest of the program this way
- Another potential advantage: inner function can refer to variables from outer one (as we will see in Chapter 12)

```

(* Sort a list of integers. *)
fun mergeSort nil = nil
| mergeSort [e] = [e]
| mergeSort theList =
    let
        (* From the given list make a pair of lists
         * (x,y), where half the elements of the
         * original are in x and half are in y. *)
        fun halve nil = (nil, nil)
        | halve [a] = ([a], nil)
        | halve (a::b::cs) =
            let
                val (x, y) = halve cs
            in
                (a::x, b::y)
            end;
    end;

```

continued...

```

(* Merge two sorted lists of integers into
 * a single sorted list. *)
fun merge (nil, ys) = ys
| merge (xs, nil) = xs
| merge (x::xs, y::ys) =
    if (x < y) then x :: merge(xs, y::ys)
    else y :: merge(x::xs, ys);

val (x, y) = halve theList
in
    merge(mergeSort x, mergeSort y)
end;

```

Commenting

- Everything between `(*` and `*)` in ML is a comment
- You should (at least) comment every function definition, as in any language
 - what parameters does it expect
 - what function does it compute
 - how does it do it (if non-obvious)
 - etc.