

Chapter Seven

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Outline

- Patterns
- Local variable definitions
- A sorting example

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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

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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";
```

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Constants As Patterns

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

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

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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
```

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Lists Of Patterns As Patterns

- 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

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Cons Of Patterns As A Pattern

- 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

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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 nonempty list whose head and tail match the sub-patterns

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Multiple Patterns for Functions

■ You can define a function by listing alternate patterns

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Syntax

```
<fun-def> ::= fun <fun-bodies> ;

<fun-bodies> ::= <fun-body>

| <fun-body> '|' <fun-bodies>

<fun-body> ::= <fun-name> <pattern> = <expression>
```

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

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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

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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 is preferred in ML
- It often gives shorter and more legible functions

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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);
```

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Pattern-Matching Example

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

Improved using patterns:

Original (from Chapter 5):

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

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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;
```

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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;
```

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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
```

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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

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Patterns Everywhere

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

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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

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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

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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

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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

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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

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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

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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
```

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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

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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);</pre>
```

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

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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
```

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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

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Merge Sort At Work

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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)

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```
(* 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) =
                 val(x, y) = halve cs
                 (a::x, b::y)
               end;
  continued...
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                                                           36
```

```
(* 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;</pre>
```

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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.

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