## A Second Look At ML

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## Outline

- Patterns

Local variable definitions

- A sorting example


## Two Patterns You Already Know

We have seen that ML functions take a single parameter:
fun $\mathrm{f} \mathrm{n}=\mathrm{n} \star_{\mathrm{n}}$;
We have also seen how to specify functions with more than one input by using tuples:
fun $f(a, b)=a * b ;$
Both $\mathbf{n}$ and ( $\mathrm{a}, \mathrm{b}$ ) are patterns. The n matches and binds to any argument, while (a,b) matches any 2-tuple and binds a and $\mathbf{b}$ 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:

$$
\text { fun } f x=\text { yes"; }
$$

## Constants As Patterns

```
- fun f O = "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:

$$
\text { fun f } 0.0=\text { "yes"; }
$$

## Non-Exhaustive Match

In that last example, the type of $\mathbf{f}$ was int $->$ string, but with a "match nonexhaustive" warning
Meaning: $\mathbf{£}$ 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
$\mathbf{x}: \mathbf{: x s}$ matches any non-empty list, and binds $\mathbf{x}$ to the head and $\mathbf{x s}$ to the tail

Parens around $\mathbf{x}: \mathbf{: x s}$ 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 nonempty list whose head and tail match the sub-patterns


## Multiple Patterns for Functions

```
- fun f O = "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

<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

## Overlapping Patterns

```
- fun f O = "zero"
= | f__= "non-zero";
val f = \overline{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:

$$
\begin{aligned}
& \text { fun } f 0=\text { "zero" } \\
& \text { l } f=\text { "non-zero"; } \\
& \text { fun } f \bar{n}= \\
& \text { if } n=0 \text { then "zero" } \\
& \text { else "non-zero"; }
\end{aligned}
$$

But the pattern-matching style usually is 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 patternThis is not legal:

$$
\begin{array}{ll}
\text { fun } & \mathbf{f}(\mathbf{a}, \mathrm{a})=\ldots \text { for pairs of equal elements } \\
\mathrm{I} & \mathbf{f}(\mathbf{a}, \mathrm{~b})=\ldots \text { for pairs of unequal elements }
\end{array}
$$

You must use this instead:

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

        if ( \(\mathrm{a}=\mathrm{b}\) ) 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;
- $\mathbf{x}$;

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)
\(=1\) halve [a] = ([a], nil)
\(=1\) halve (a::b::cs) =
\(=\quad\) let
\(=\quad \operatorname{val}(x, y)=\) halve cs
\(=\quad\) in
\(=\quad(\mathrm{a}:: \mathrm{x}, \mathrm{b}:: \mathrm{y})\)
\(=\quad\) 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

PatternsLocal 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
\(\mid\) merge (x::xs, y::ys) =
        if ( \(\mathrm{x}<\mathrm{y}\) ) then \(\mathrm{x}:\) : merge (xs, \(\mathrm{y}: \mathrm{ys}\) )
        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
* ( $\mathrm{x}, \mathrm{y}$ ), 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
$\operatorname{val}(x, y)=$ halve cs
in
( $\mathrm{a}:: \mathrm{x}, \mathrm{b}: \mathbf{y}$ )
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.

