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The Algol family and ML

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**Based on John C. Mitchell's slides (Stanford U.) ,
adapted by Gerardo Schneider, UiO.**

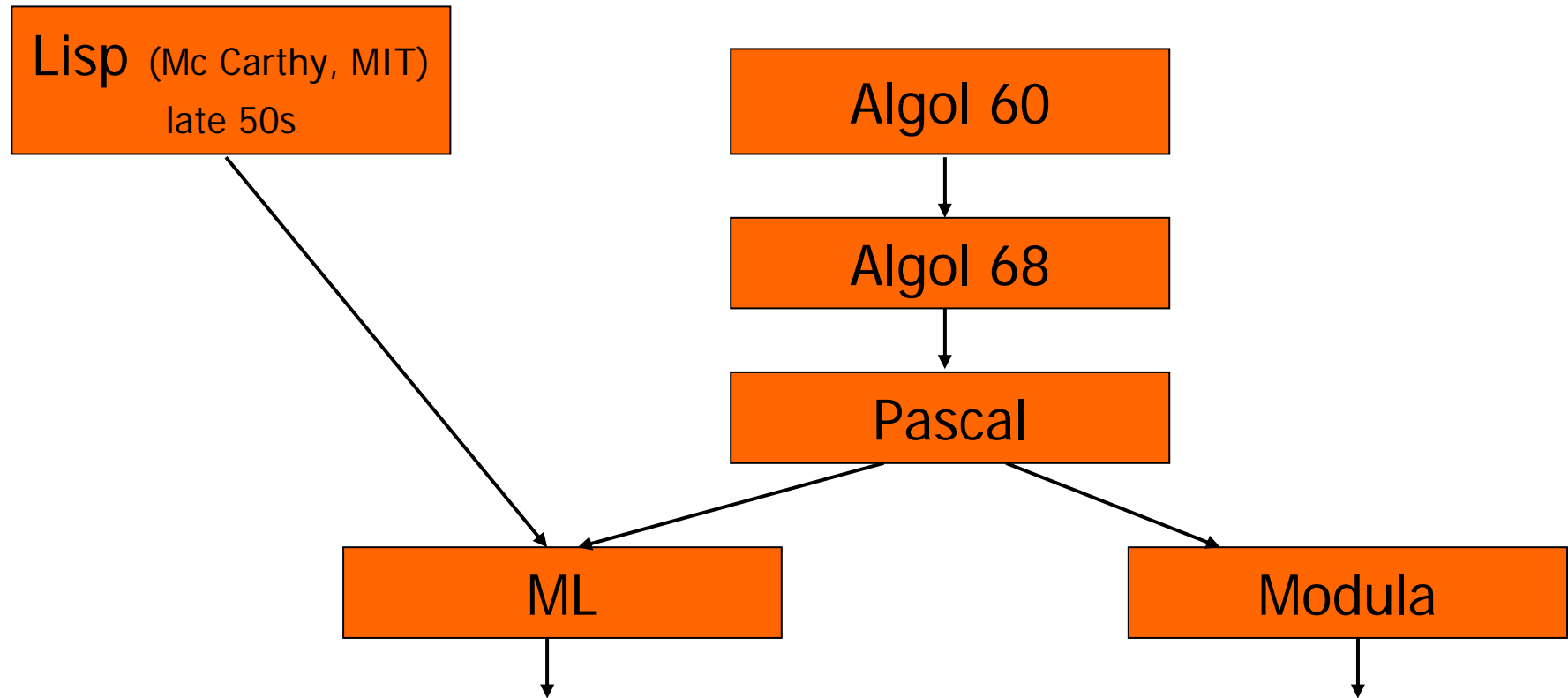
ML lectures

1. **04.09: The Algol Family and ML (Mitchell's chap. 5 + more)**
2. **11.09: More on ML & types (chap. 5 and 6)**
3. **18.09: More on Types, Type Inference and Polymorphism (chap. 6)**
4. **02.10: Control in sequential languages, Exceptions and Continuations (chap. 8)**

Outline

- ◆ Brief overview of Algol-like programming languages (Mitchell, Chapter 5)
 - Algol 60
 - Algol 68
 - Pascal
 - Modula
 - C
- ◆ Basic ML (Mitchell's Chapter 5 + more – see at the end)

A (partial) Language Sequence



Many other languages in the “family”:

Algol 58, Algol W, Euclid, Ada, Simula 67, BCPL,
Modula-2, Oberon, Modula-3 (DEC), Delphi, ...

Algol 60

- ◆ Designed: 1958-1963 (J. Backus, J. Mc Carthy, A. Perlis,...)
- ◆ General purpose language. Features:
 - Simple imperative language + functions
 - Successful syntax, BNF -- used by many successors
 - statement oriented
 - Begin ... End blocks (like C { ... }) (local variables)
 - if ... then ... else
 - Recursive functions and stack storage allocation
 - Fewer ad hoc restrictions than Fortran
 - General array references: $A[x + B[3]^*y]$
 - Parameters in procedure calls
 - Primitive static type system

Algol 60 Sample

```
real procedure average(A,n);
```

```
  real array A; integer n;
```

← no array bounds

```
begin
```

```
  real sum; sum := 0;
```

```
  for i = 1 step 1 until n do
```

```
    sum := sum + A[i];
```

```
  average := sum/n
```

← no ";" here

```
end;
```

← set procedure return value by assignment

Some trouble spots in Algol 60

◆ Shortcoming of its type discipline

- Type “array” as a procedure parameter
 - no array bounds
- “procedure” can be a parameter type
 - no argument or return types for procedure parameter

◆ Parameter passing methods

- *Pass-by-name* had various anomalies (side effects)
- *Pass-by-value* expensive for arrays

◆ Some awkward control issues

- *goto* out of a block requires memory management

Algol 60 Pass-by-name

◆ Substitute text of actual parameter (*copy rule*)

- Unpredictable with side effects!

◆ Example

```
procedure inc2(i, j);
```

```
  integer i, j;
```

```
  begin
```

```
    i := i+1;
```

```
    j := j+1
```

```
  end;
```

```
inc2 (k, A[k]);
```



```
begin
```

```
  k := k+1;
```

```
  A[k] := A[k] + 1
```

```
end;
```

Is this what you expected?

Algol 68

- ◆ Intended to improve Algol 60
- ◆ Considered difficult to understand
 - New terminology
 - types were called “modes”
 - arrays were called “multiple values”
 - Elaborate type system (e.g. array of pointers to procedures)
 - Complicated type conversions
- ◆ Fixed some problems of Algol 60
 - Eliminated pass-by-name (introduced pass-by-reference)
- ◆ Storage management
 - Local storage on stack
 - Heap storage, explicit alloc and garbage collection

Pascal

- ◆ Designed by N. Wirth (70s)
- ◆ Evolved from Algol W
- ◆ Revised type system of Algol
 - Good data-structuring concepts (based on C.A.R. Hoare's ideas)
 - records, variants (union type), subranges (e.g. [1...10])
 - More restrictive than Algol 60/68
 - Procedure parameters cannot have procedure parameters
- ◆ Popular teaching language (till the 90s)
- ◆ Simple one-pass compiler

Limitations of Pascal

◆ Array bounds part of type

procedure p(a : array [1..10] of integer)

procedure p(n: integer, a : array [1..n] of integer)

illegal



• Practical drawbacks:

- Types cannot contain variables
- How to write a generic *sort* procedure?
 - Only for arrays of some fixed length

How could this have happened? Emphasis on teaching

◆ Not successful for “industrial-strength” projects

Modula

- ◆ Designed by N. Wirth (late 70s)
- ◆ Descendent of Pascal
- ◆ Main innovation over Pascal: **Module system**
 - Modules allow certain declarations to be grouped together
 - *Definition module*: interface
 - *Implementation module*: implementation
- ◆ Modules in Modula provides minimal information hiding

C Programming Language

- ◆ Designed for writing Unix by Dennis Ritchie (1969 - 1973)
- ◆ Evolved from B, which was based on BCPL
 - B was an untyped language; C adds some checking
- ◆ Relation between arrays and pointers
 - An array is treated as a pointer to first element
 - $E1[E2]$ is equivalent to ptr dereference $*((E1)+(E2))$
 - Pointer arithmetic is *not* common in other languages
- ◆ Popular language
 - Memory model close to the underlying hardware
 - Many programmers like C flexibility (?!)

ML

- ◆ A *function-oriented imperative language*
- ◆ Typed programming language (sound)
- ◆ Intended for interactive use
- ◆ Combination of Lisp and Algol-like features
 - Expression-oriented, Higher-order functions, Garbage collection, Abstract data types, Module system, Exceptions
- ◆ General purpose non-C-like, not OO language
- ◆ *OCAML*: ML extended with OO and a sophisticated module system

Why study ML ?

- ◆ Learn an important language that's different
- ◆ Discuss general programming languages issues
 - Types and type checking (Mitchell's chapter 6)
 - General issues in static/dynamic typing
 - Type inference
 - Polymorphism and Generic Programming
 - Memory management (Mitchell's chapter 7)
 - Static scope and block structure
 - Function activation records, higher-order functions
 - Control (Mitchell's chapter 8)
 - Exceptions
 - Tail recursion and continuations
 - Force and delay

Why study ML ?

- ◆ Learn to think about, and solve problems in new ways
- ◆ All programming languages has a functional “part”. Useful to know.
- ◆ Verifiable programming: Easier to reason about a functional language.
- ◆ More compact (simple?) code. Higher order functions.
- ◆ Certain aspects are easier to understand and program. E.g. recursion.

History of ML

- ◆ Designed by Robin Milner – part of the LCF project
- ◆ Logic for Computable Functions (LCF project)
 - Based on Dana Scott's ideas (1969)
 - Formulate logic for proving properties of typed functional programs
 - Milner
 - Project to automate logic
 - Notation for programs
 - Notation for assertions and proofs
 - Need to write programs that find proofs
 - Too much work to construct full formal proof by hand
 - Make sure proofs are correct
 - *Meta-Language* of the LCF system

LCF proof search

- ◆ *Proof tactic*: function that tries to find a proof

tactic(formula) = $\left\{ \begin{array}{l} \text{succeed and return proof} \\ \text{search forever} \\ \text{fail} \end{array} \right.$

- ◆ Express tactics in the Meta-Language (ML)
- ◆ Use a *type system* to distinguish successful from unsuccessful proofs and to facilitate correctness

Tactics in ML type system

- ◆ Tactic has a functional type

tactic : formula \rightarrow proof

- ◆ What if the formula is not correct and there is no proof?

Type system must allow “failure”

tactic(formula) = $\left\{ \begin{array}{l} \text{succeed and return proof} \\ \text{search forever} \\ \text{fail and } \textit{raise exception} \end{array} \right.$

- ◆ First type-safe exception mechanism!

Function types in ML

$f : A \rightarrow B$ means

for every $x \in A$,

$f(x) = \left\{ \begin{array}{l} \text{some element } y=f(x) \in B \\ \text{run forever} \\ \text{terminate by raising an exception} \end{array} \right.$

SML

- ◆ In the practical part of the course we will use **Standard ML** of New Jersey (SML/NJ, v110.49)
 - From the prompt: **sml**
- ◆ Assistants:
 - John Olav Lund (Gr 3)
 - Marius Einan Storeide (Gr 1 & 2)
- ◆ Mandatory exercise ("oblig") – next monday on the course homepage

Core ML

◆ Basic Types

- Unit (unit)
- Booleans (bool)
- Integers (int)
- Strings (string)
- Reals (real)
- Tuples
- Lists
- Records

◆ Patterns

◆ Declarations

◆ Functions

◆ Type declarations

◆ Reference Cells

◆ Polymorphism

◆ Overloading

◆ Exceptions

Basic Overview of ML

◆ Interactive compiler: *read-eval-print*

- Expressions are type checked, compiled and executed
- Compiler infers type before compiling or executing

◆ Examples

- $(5+3)-2$;

> `val it = 6 : int` "it" is an id bound to the value of last exp

- `if 5>3 then "Big" else "Small"`;

> `val it = "Big" : string`

- `val greeting = "Hello"`;

> `val greeting = "Hello" : string`

Overview by Type

◆ Booleans

- true, false : bool
- if ... then ... else ... types must match; "else" is mandatory

◆ Integers

- 0, 1, 2, ... -1, -2, ... : int
- +, * , ... : int * int → int

◆ Strings

- "Universitetet i Oslo" : string
- "Universitetet" ^ " i " ^ "Oslo"

◆ Reals

- 1.0, 2.2, 3.14159, ... decimal point used to disambiguate

Compound Types

◆ Unit

- () : unit similar to void in C

◆ Tuples

- (4, 5, "ha det!") : int * int * string;
- #3(4, 5, "ha det!")
> val it = "ha det" : string

◆ Records

- {name="Anibal", hungry=true}: {name: string, hungry: bool};
- #name({name = "Anibal", hungry=true});
> val it = "Anibal" : string

◆ Lists

- nil;
- 1 :: nil ;
- 1::(2::(3::(4::nil)))
- 1 :: [2, 3, 4]; infix cons notation
> val it = [1,2,3,4] : int list
- [1,2] @ [3,4] append

Patterns and Declarations

◆ Patterns can be used in place of identifiers

`<pat> ::= <id> | <tuple> | <cons> | <record> ...`

◆ Value declarations

- General form

```
val <pat> = <exp>
```

- Examples

```
val myTuple = ("Carlos", "Johan");
```

```
val (x,y) = myTuple;
```

```
val myList = [1, 2, 3, 4];
```

```
val x::rest = myList;
```

- Local declarations

```
let val x = 2+3 in x*4 end;
```

Functions and Pattern Matching

◆ Function declaration

- `fun f(<pattern>) = <expr>`
 - `fun f (x,y) = x+y;` actual par. must match pattern (x,y)
 - `fun f x y = x+y;`
- `fn <pattern> => <expr>`
 - `fn x => x+1;` anonymous function (like Lisp “lambda”)
 - `val addone = fn x => x+1 ;`

◆ Multiple-clause definition

- `fun <name> <pat1> = <exp1> | ...`
`| <name> <patn> = <expn>`
- Example:
 - `fun length (nil) = 0`
`| length (x::s) = 1 + length(s);`

Some functions on lists

◆ Insert an element in an ordered list

```
fun insert (e, nil)    = [e]
  | insert (e,x::xs) = if e>x then x :: insert(e,xs)
                       else e::(x::xs);
```

◆ Append lists

```
fun append(nil, ys) = ys
  | append(x::xs, ys) = x :: append(xs, ys);
```


Map function on lists

- ◆ Apply a function to every element of list

```
fun map (f, nil) = nil
```

```
|   map (f, x::xs) = f(x) :: map (f,xs);
```

```
fun incr x = x+1 ;
```

```
map (incr, [1,2,3]);            [2,3,4]
```

```
map (fn x => x*x, [1,2,3]);     [1,4,9]
```

Map is a *high-order* function (or a *functional*)

Data-type Declarations

◆ General form

datatype <name> = <clause> | ... | <clause>
<clause> ::= <constructor> | <constructor> of <type>

◆ Examples

- datatype color = red | yellow | blue;
 - elements are: *red, yellow, blue*
- datatype atom = atm of string | nmbr of int;
 - elements are: *atm("A"), atm("B"), ..., nmbr(0), nmbr(1), ...*
- datatype list = nil | cons of atom*list;
 - elements are: *nil, cons(atm("A"), nil), ...*
cons(nmbr(2), cons(atm("ugh"), nil)), ...

Type Abbreviations

◆ The keyword *type* can be used to define a type *abbreviation*:

- `type int_pair = int * int ;`
- `(1,2) : int_pair ;`
- `type person = {name : string, age : int }`

- `fun getName(x) = #name(x)`

`fun getName (x) = #name(x);`

stdIn:1.1-38.6 Error: unresolved flex record

(can't tell what fields there are besides #name)

`fun getName(x : person) = #name(x)`

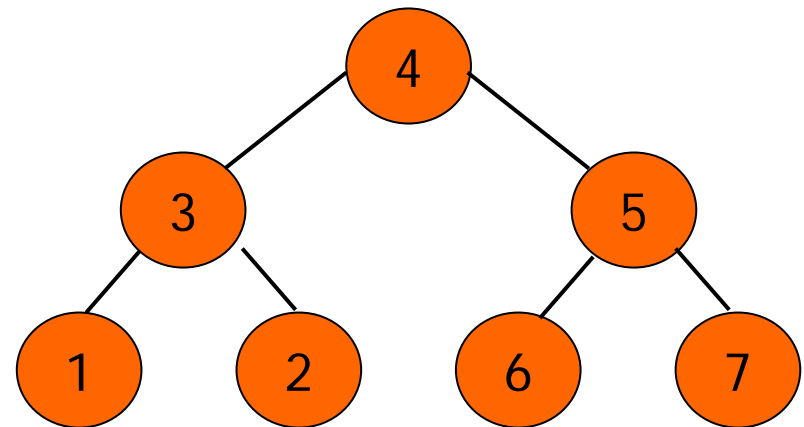
`fun getName(x) = #name(x)`

Datatype and pattern matching

◆ Recursively defined data structure

`datatype tree = Leaf of int | Node of int*tree*tree;`

```
Node(4, Node(3,Leaf(1), Leaf(2)),  
      Node(5,Leaf(6), Leaf(7))  
    )
```



◆ Recursive function

`fun sum (Leaf n) = n`

`| sum (Node(n,t1,t2)) = n + sum(t1) + sum(t2);`

Case expression

◆ Datatype

datatype exp = Var of int | Const of int | Plus of exp*exp;

◆ Case expression

case e of Var(n) => ... |

Const(n) => ... |

Plus(e1,e2) => ...

fun eval(e) =

case e of Var(n) => n

| Const(n) => n

| Plus(e1,e2) => eval(e1) + eval(e2) ;

insert: Three "different" declarations

1.

```
fun insert (e,nil)    = [e]
  | insert (e, x::xs) = if e>x then x::insert(e,xs)
                        else e::(x::xs);
```
2.

```
fun insert (e:int, ls : int list) : int list =
  case ls of nil    => [e]
  | x::xs => if e>x then x::insert(e,xs) else e::ls;
```
3.

```
fun insert (e,ls) =
  case ls of nil    => [e]
  | x::xs => if e>x then x::insert(e,xs) else e::ls;
```

ML imperative constructs

- ◆ None of the constructs seen so far have side effects
 - An expression has a value, but evaluating it does not change the value of any other expression
- ◆ Assignment
 - Different from other Programming Languages:
 - To separate side effects from pure expressions as much as possible
 - Restricted to *reference cells*

Variables and assignment

◆ General terminology: L-values and R-values

- Assignment $y := x + 3;$
 - Identifier on left refers to a *memory location*, called L-value
 - Identifier on right refers to *contents*, called R-value

◆ Variables

- Most languages
 - A variable names a storage location
 - Contents of location can be read, can be changed
- ML reference cell (L-value)
 - A mutable cell is another type of value
 - Explicit operations to read contents or change contents
 - Separates naming (declaration of identifiers) from “variables”

ML reference cells

◆ Different types for location and contents

`x : int` non-assignable integer value
`y : int ref` location whose contents must be integer

◆ Operations

`ref x` expression creating new cell initialized to `x`
`!y` the contents of location `y`
`y := x` places value `x` in reference cell `y`

◆ Examples

`val y = ref 0 ;` create cell `y` with initial value 0
`y := x+3;` place value of `x+3` in cell `y`; requires `x:int`
`y := !y + 3;` add 3 to contents of `y` and store in location `y`

ML examples

◆ Create cell and change contents

```
val x = ref "Bob";
```

```
x := "Bill";
```



◆ Create cell and increment

```
val y = ref 0;
```

```
y := !y + 1;
```



◆ While loop

```
val i = ref 0;
```

```
while !i < 10 do i := !i + 1;
```

```
!i;
```

Further reading

- ◆ Extra material on ML.
- ◆ See links on the course page: "Pensum/læringskrav"
 - Bjørn Kristoffersen: *Funksjonell programmering i standard ML; kompendium 61*, 1995. Pensum!
 - Riccardo Pucella: *Notes on programming SML/NJ*
- ◆ L.C. Paulson: *ML for the working programmer*

ML lectures

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