

# Defining Functions

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## Defining values of simple types

```
- val i = 3;  
val i = 3 : int
```

## Defining function values:

```
- val inc = fn (x) => x + 1;  
val inc = fn : int -> int  
  
- inc(3);  
val it = 4 : int  
  
- val is_3 = fn x =>  
    if x = 3 then "yes" else "no";  
val is_3 = fn : int -> string  
  
- is_3 4;  
val it = "no" : string
```

Function types: `fn: <domain type> -> <range type>`

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Polymorphism

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The previous definitions can be abbreviated:

```
fun <identifier>(<parameter list>) = <expression>;
```

```
- fun inc(x) = x + 1;  
val inc = fn : int -> int  
  
- fun is_3 x =  
    if x = 3 then "yes" else "no";  
val is_3 = fn : int -> string  
  
- fun test(x,y) = if x < y then y else x+1;  
val test = fn : int * int -> int
```

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How would you write an ML program for the quadratic formula?

$$x = \frac{-b \pm \sqrt{b^2 - 4ac}}{2a}$$

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A (simple) ML program is generally a sequence of function definitions

```
fun multiply (val_1, val_2)
```

```
  ...  
  ...;
```

```
fun divide (val_1, val_2)
```

```
  ...  
  ...;
```

```
fun subtract (val_1, val_2)
```

```
  ...  
  ...;
```

```
fun square_root (val_1)
```

```
  ...  
  ...;
```

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## Functions can be anonymous

```
- fn x => x + 2;  
val it = fn : int -> int
```

## Functions can be tuple components

```
- val p = (fn (x,y) => x + y,  
          fn (x,y) => x - y);  
val p = (fn, fn) :  
        (int * int -> int) * (int * int -> int)  
  
- #1(p)(2,3);  
val it = 5 : int  
  
- #2(p)(2,3);  
val it = ~1 : int
```

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## Functions can be list elements

```
- fun add1(x) = x + 1;  
val add1 = fn : int -> int  
- fun add2(x) = x + 2;  
val add2 = fn : int -> int  
- fun add3(x) = x + 3;  
val add3 = fn : int -> int  
  
- val ls = [add1, add2, add3];  
val ls = [fn, fn, fn] : (int -> int) list  
  
- hd(ls)(3);  
val it = 4 : int  
  
- hd(tl(ls))(3);  
val it = 5 : int
```

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# Higher-Order Functions

## Functions can be given as arguments

```
- fun do_fun(f,x) = f(x) + x + 1;  
val do_fun = fn : (int -> int) * int -> int  
  
- do_fun(add2,3);  
val it = 9 : int  
  
- do_fun(add3,5);  
val it = 14 : int
```

## Functions can be returned as results

```
- fun make_addx(x) = fn(y) => y + x;  
val make_addx = fn : int -> int -> int  
  
- val add5 = make_addx(5);  
val add5 = fn : int -> int  
  
- add5(3);  
val it = 8 : int
```

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## A higher-order function

- ▶ “processes” other functions
- ▶ takes a function as input, and/or returns a function as a result

In SML, functions are *first-class* citizens

Just like any other value: they can be

- ▶ placed in tuples
- ▶ placed in lists
- ▶ passed as function arguments
- ▶ returned as function results

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# Compare with C

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We must use function pointers (and it's ugly):

```
#include <stdio.h>

int add3(int x)
{
    return x + 3;
}

int do_fun(int (*fp)(int x), int y)
{
    return (*fp)(y) + y + 1;
}

void main(void)
{
    printf("%d\n",do_fun(add3,5));
}
```

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# Compare with Pascal

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A little better, but we can't return functions as a result.

```
function add3(x : integer): integer;  
  
begin  
  add3 := x + 3;  
end;  
  
function do_fun( f (x : integer): integer;  
                y: integer): integer;  
  
begin  
  do_fun := f(y) + y + 1;  
end;  
  
begin  
  writeln(do_fun(add3,5));  
end.
```

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# Scope of Variables

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```
– val a = 2;  
val a = 2 : int  
– fun myfun x = x + a;  
val myfun = fn : int -> int  
– val a = 4;  
val a = 4 : int  
– myfun(5);  
???
```

```
val it = 7 : int
```

- ▶ Declarations at the top-level may seem like assignments.... but they're not!
- ▶ Technically speaking, ML is **statically scoped**
- ▶ New definitions of the same variable don't overwrite old definitions; they *shadow* the old definitions
- ▶ For efficiency, old definitions may be **garbage collected** if they are not referred to.

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# Multiple Argument Functions

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- ▶ In reality, each SML function takes exactly one argument and returns one result value.
- ▶ If we need to pass multiple arguments, we generally package the arguments up in a tuple.

```
– fun add3(x,y,z) = x + y + z;  
val add3 = fn : int * int * int -> int
```

- ▶ If a function takes  $n$  arguments, we say that it has *arity*  $n$ .

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# Multiple Argument Functions

Can we implement “multiple argument functions” without tuples or lists?

- ▶ Yes, use higher-order functions

```
– fun add3(x) =  
    fn (y) => fn (z) => x + y + z;  
val add3 = fn : int -> int -> int -> int  
  
– ((add3(1))(2))(3);  
val it = 6 : int  
  
– add3 1 2 3; (* omit needless parens *)  
val it = 6 : int
```

Abbreviate definition

```
– fun add3 x y z = x + y + z;  
val add3 = fn : int -> int -> int -> int  
  
– add3 1 2 3;  
val it = 6 : int
```

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Look closely at types:

1. `fn : int -> int -> int -> int`  
abbreviates
2. `fn : int -> (int -> (int -> int))`  
which is **different** from
3. `fn : (int -> int) -> (int -> int)`

- ▶ The first two types describes a function that
  - ▶ takes an integer as an argument and returns a function of type `int -> int -> int` as a result.
- ▶ The last type describes a function that
  - ▶ takes a function of type `int -> int` as argument and returns a function of type `int -> int`.

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The function

```
– fun add3(x) =  
    fn (y) => fn (z) => x + y + z;  
val add3 = fn : int -> int -> int -> int
```

is called the “curried” version of

```
– fun add3(x,y,z) = x + y + z;  
val add3 = fn : int * int * int -> int
```

History:

- ▶ The process of moving from the first version to the second is called “currying” after the logician Haskell Curry who supposedly first identified the technique.
- ▶ The technique actually goes back to two other logicians named Schönfinkel and Frege
- ▶ but we still call it “currying” (thank goodness!).

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# Instantiating Curried Functions

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Curried functions are useful because they allow us to create [partially instantiated](#) or [specialized](#) functions where some (but not all) arguments are supplied.

```
- fun add x y = x + y;  
val add = fn : int -> int -> int  
  
- val add3 = add 3;  
val add3 = fn : int -> int  
  
- val add5 = add 5;  
val add5 = fn : int -> int  
  
- add3 2 + add5 6;  
val it = 16 : int
```

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The theory of polymorphism underlying SML is an elegant feature that clearly distinguishes SML from other languages that are less well-designed.

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```
- fun id x = x;  
val id = fn : 'a -> 'a  
- id 5;  
val it = 5 : int  
- id "abc";  
val it = "abc" : string  
- id (fn x => x + x);  
val it = fn : int -> int  
- id(2) + floor(id(3.5));  
val it = 5 : int
```

Polymorphism: (poly = many, morph = form)

# Polymorphic and Monomorphic Functions

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```
- hd;  
val it = fn : 'a list -> 'a  
  
- hd [1,2,3];  
val it = 1 : int  
  
- hd ["a","b","c"];  
val it = "a" : string  
  
- val hd_int = hd : int list -> int;  
val hd_int = fn : int list -> int  
  
- hd_int [1,2,3];  
val it = 1 : int  
  
- hd_int ["a","b","c"];  
... Error: operator and operand don't...
```

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# Polymorphism

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```
- val two_ids = (id, id);  
val two_ids = (fn, fn) : ('a -> 'a) * ('b -> 'b)  
  
- val two_id = (id : int -> int, id)  
val two_id = (fn, fn) : (int -> int) * ('a -> 'a)
```

- ▶ Think of `fn : 'a -> 'a` as the type of a function that has many different versions (one for each type).
- ▶ `'a` is a **type variable**; a place holder where we can fill in any type.
- ▶ A type can contain more than one type variable
- ▶ The SML implementation always comes up with the most general type possible, but we can override with a specific type declaration.
- ▶ A type with no type variables is called a **ground type**.
- ▶ There are many subtle and interesting points about polymorphism that we will come back to later.

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# A Higher-order Polymorphic Function

Functions in SML

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Compose: `o` (pre-defined function)

```
- val add8 = add3 o add5;  
val add8 = fn : int -> int  
- add8 3;  
val it = 11 : int  
- (op o); (* convert infix to non-infix *)  
val it = fn :  
  ('a -> 'b) * ('c -> 'a) -> 'c -> 'b
```

User-defined version:

```
- fun my_o (f,g) = fn x => f(g(x));  
val my_o = fn :  
  ('a -> 'b) * ('c -> 'a) -> 'c -> 'b
```

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