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The Algol family and ML

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

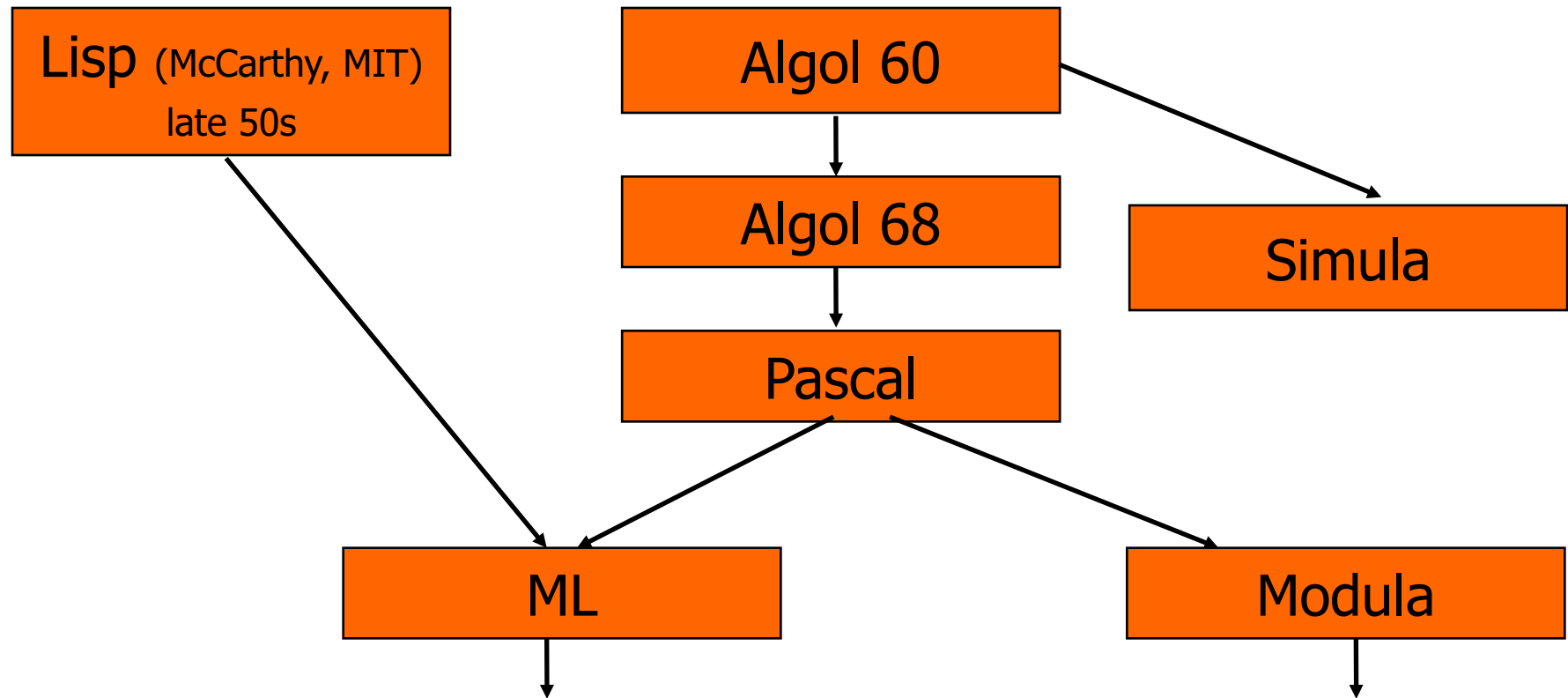
ML lectures

- ◆ **16.09: The Algol Family and ML (Mitchell's chap. 5)**
- ◆ **23.09:** More on ML & Types (chap. 5 and 6)
- ◆ **21.10:** More on Types, Type Inference and Polymorphism (chap. 6)
- ◆ **28.10:** Control in sequential languages, Exceptions and Continuations (chap. 8)
- ◆ Prolog I / Prolog II

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)

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. McCarthy, A. Perlis,...)
- ◆ General purpose language. Features:
 - Simple imperative language + functions
 - Successful syntax, used by many successors
 - Statement oriented
 - begin ... end blocks (like C { ... }) (local variables)
 - if ... then ... else
 - BNF (Backus Normal Form)
 - Became the standard for describing syntax
 - ALGOL became a standard language to describe algorithms.
 - 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
 - Systematic, regular type system
- ◆ Parameter passing
 - Eliminated pass-by-name (introduced *pass-by-reference*)
 - Pass-by-value and pass-by-reference using pointers
- ◆ Storage management
 - Local storage on stack
 - Heap storage, explicit *alloc* and garbage collection
- ◆ 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

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 (over 20 years! Till the 90s)
- ◆ Simple one-pass compiler



Procedure parameters in Pascal

◆ Allowed

```
procedure Proc1(i,j: integer);
```

```
procedure Proc2(procedure P(i:integer); i,j: integer);
```

◆ Not allowed

```
procedure NotA(procedure Proc3(procedure P(i:integer)));
```

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 † 2011
- ◆ 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 **pointer 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 (?!)
 - However weak type checking can just as well be seen as a disadvantage.

ML

- ◆ A *function-oriented imperative language* (or a mostly functional language with imperative features)
- ◆ Typed programming language. Clean and expressive type system.
- ◆ Sound type system (type checking), but not unpleasantly restrictive.
- ◆ Intended for interactive use ... (but not only...)
- ◆ 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

Why study ML ?

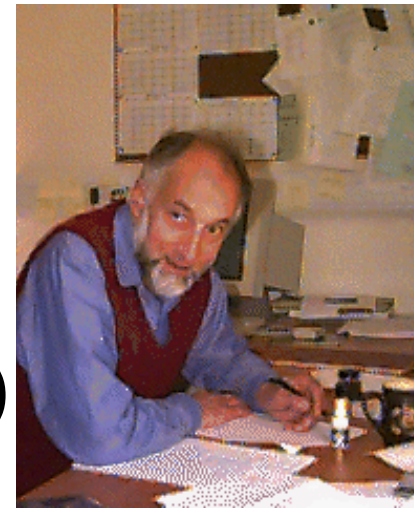
- ◆ Learn to think and solve problems in new ways
- ◆ All programming languages have a functional “part”
- useful to know
- ◆ Verifiable programming: Easier to reason about a functional language, **and to prove properties of programs**
- ◆ More compact (simple?) code
- ◆ Higher order functions
- ◆ Certain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

Why study ML ?

- ◆ Learn a different PL
- ◆ Discuss general PL 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

Origin of ML

- ◆ Designed by R. Milner^{† 2010} (70s and 80s)
- ◆ Logic for Computable Functions (LCF project)
 - Based on Dana Scott's ideas (1969)
 - Formulate logic to prove properties of typed func. prog.
 - Simply typed (polymorphic) lambda calculus.
 - Milner's goals
 - Project to automate logic
 - Notation for programs
 - Notation for assertions and proofs
 - 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 $x \in A$,

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

Later development of ML

- ◆ Developed into different dialects
- ◆ Standard ML 1983, **SML** 1997
- ◆ CML: Concurrent ML (USA)
- ◆ Caml: Concurrent ML (INRIA, France)
- ◆ **OCAML** (Objective Caml -INRIA): ML extended with OO and a module system
 - First language that combines full power of OOP with ML-style static typing and type inference
 - Advanced OO programming idioms: type-parametric classes, binary methods, mytype specialization) in a statically type-safe way (see <http://caml.inria.fr/about/history.en.html>)

SML

- ◆ <http://www.smlnj.org>
- ◆ In the practical part of the course we will use **Standard ML of New Jersey (SML/NJ, v110.67)**
 - From the prompt: `sml`
stolz ~ \$ sml
Standard ML of New Jersey v110.76 [built: Tue Oct 29 11:16:33 2013]
-
 - See Pucella 1.6. "Getting started"
 - Note: to read in a file with sml code
 - use `"filename.sml"`;

Core ML

◆ Basic Types

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

◆ Patterns

◆ Declarations

◆ Functions

◆ Type declarations

◆ Reference Cells

◆ Polymorphism

◆ Overloading

◆ Exceptions

Basic Overview of ML

- ◆ SML has an 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 .
- +, -, *, div ... : int * int → int .
- =, <, <=, >, <= : int * int -> bool .
- (op >) turns the infix operator > into a function: 1 < 5 but (op <)(1,5)

◆ Strings

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

◆ Char

- #"a"

◆ Reals

- 1.0, 2.2, 3.14159, ... decimal point used to disambiguate
- No '=' operator for reals 1.0 = 1.0 → Error
- Cannot combine reals and ints, no coercion. 1.0 + 2 → Error

Compound Types

◆ Unit

- `() : unit` similar to void in C

◆ Tuples

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

◆ Records

- Are tuples with labeled fields:
- `{name="Jones", age=34} : {name: string, age: int};`
- `#name({name="Jones", age=34}); > val it = "Jones" : string`
- **Order does not matter:**
`{name="Jones", age=34} = {age=34, name="Jones"}; → true`
`("Jones",34) = (34,"Jones") → Error.`

◆ 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
`> val it = [1,2,3,4] : int list`

Value declarations and patterns

◆ val keyword, type annotations

- `val mypi = 3.1415;` `> val mypi = 3.1415 : real`
- `val name : string = "Gerardo";` `> val name = "Gerardo" : string`

◆ Patterns can be used in place of identifiers (more later)

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

◆ 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;`
 - `> val it = 20 : int`

Functions and Pattern Matching

◆ Function declaration

- Functions are as other values:
 - `(5*6) ;`
 - > `val it = 30 : int`
 - `fn x => x * 2 ;` "anonymous function", in lambda notation $\lambda x . (x * 2)$
 - > `val it = fn : int -> int`
 - `val dbl = fn x => x * 2 ;` > `val dbl = fn : int -> int`
- But we have a special syntax for defining functions:
 - `fun dbl x = x * 2 ;` > `val dbl = fn : int -> int`

◆ Function declaration, general form

- `fun f (<pattern>) = <expr>`
 - `fun f (x,y) = x+y;` Actual par. must match pattern (x,y)
- `fn <pattern> => <expr>`
 - `fn (x,y) => x+y;` Anonymous function

◆ Multiple-clause definition

- `fun <name> <pat1> = <exp1> | ...`
| `<name> <patn> = <expn>`
- `fun length (nil) = 0`
| `length (x::s) = 1 + length(s);`
- > `val length = fn 'a list -> int`
- `length ["J", "o", "n"]` > `val it = 3 : int`

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);
```

```
- insert (3,[1,2,5]) ;
```

```
> val it = [1,2,3,5] : int list
```

◆ Append lists

```
fun append(nil, ys) = ys
```

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

```
- append ([3,4],[1,2]) ;
```

```
>val it = [3,4,1,2] : int list
```

Data-type declarations

◆ Enumeration types

- datatype color = Red | Yellow | Blue;
 - elements are: Red, Yellow, Blue <- Constructors!

◆ Tagged union types

- datatype value = I of int | R of real | S of string;
 - elements are: I(9) , R(8.3) , S("hello") ...
- datatype keyval = StrVal of string * string | IntVal of string * int ;
 - elements are: StrVal("foo","bar") , IntVal("foo",55) ...
- datatype mylist = Nil | Cons of value * mylist
 - elements are: Nil , Cons (I(8) ,Nil) , Cons (R(1.0), Cons (I (8), Nil))

◆ General form

datatype <name> = <clause> | ... | <clause>

<clause> ::= <constructor> | <constructor> of <type>

Type abbreviations

- ◆ We use *datatype* to define new types
- ◆ The keyword *type* can be used to define a type *abbreviation*:

```
- type int_pair = int * int ;
```

- The type inference will not report types as the defined abbrev.:

```
- val a = (3,5);
```

```
> val a = (3,5) : int * int
```

- We can force the use of type abbreviation:

```
- val a : int_pair = (3,5);
```

```
> val a = (3,5) : int_pair
```


Datatype and pattern matching

◆ Recursively defined data structure

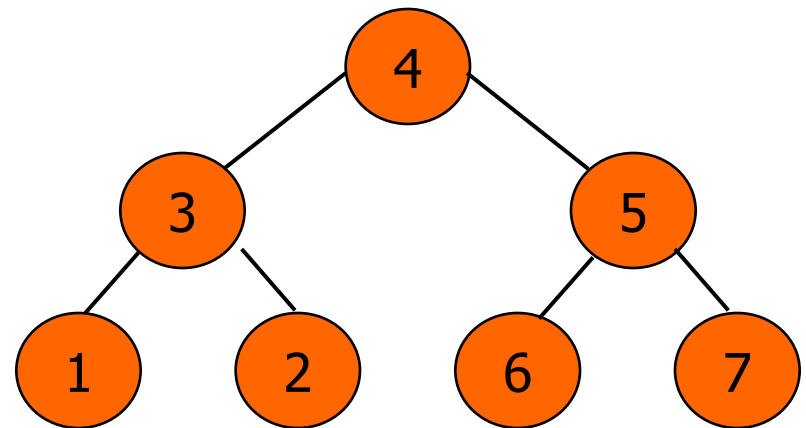
- datatype tree = Leaf of int | Node of int*tree*tree;

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

◆ Recursive function (sum)

- fun sum (Leaf n) = n

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



Case expression

- ◆ Datatype

- datatype exp = Num of int | Var of var | Plus of exp*exp;

- ◆ Case expression

- case e of Num(i) => ... |
 Var(v) => |
 Plus(e1,e2) => ...

- fun eval(e) = case e of Num(i) => i
 | Var(v) => lookUp(v)
 | Plus(e1,e2) => eval(e1) + eval(e2)

- ◆ Case matching is done in order

- ◆ Use `_` to catch all missing

- fun bintoString(i) = case x of 0 => "zero"
 | 1 => "one"
 | _ => "illegal value";

- > val bintoString = fn : int -> string

- ◆ Can also use `_` in declarations if we don't care about the value being matched

- fun hd(x::xs) = x ;

- fun hd(x::_) = x ;

insert: Three "different" declarations

1.

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

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

```
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 ;
```

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 (pseudocode, not ML!) $y := x+3;$
 - 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 reference cell has a different type than a 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 containing value `x`
`!y` returns the contents (value) of location `y`
`y := x` places value `x` in reference cell `y`

◆ Examples

- `val x = ref 0 ;` create cell `x` with initial value 0
> `val x = ref 0 : int ref`
- `x := x+3;` place value of `x+3` in cell `x`; requires `x:int`
> `val it = () : unit` (type is "unit" since it is an expression with side effects)
- `x := !x + 3;` add 3 to contents of `x` and store result in location `x`
> `val it = () : unit`
- `!x;` > `val it = 6 : int`

ML examples

◆ Create cell and change contents

- `val x = ref "Bob";`
- `x := "Bill";`



◆ Create cell and increment

- `val y = ref 0;`
- `y := !y + 1;`
- `y := y + 1` **Error!**



◆ In summary:

- `x : int` not assignable (like constant in other PL)
- `y : int ref` assignable reference cell

Further reading

- ◆ Extra material on ML.
- ◆ See links on the course page: " Syllabus/achievement requirements "
 - Riccardo Pucella: *Notes on programming SML/NJ (Pensum/Syllabus :Secs. 1.1-1.3, 1.6, and sec. 2.)*
 - In Norwegian: Bjørn Kristoffersen: *Funksjonell programmering i standard ML; kompendium 61, 1995.*
 - **SML/NJ** <http://www.smlnj.org/>
 - Functions and types available at the top-level:
<http://www.smlnj.org/doc/basis/pages/top-level-chapter.html>
- ◆ L.C. Paulson: *ML for the working programmer*

ML lectures

- ◆ **15.09: The Algol Family and ML (Mitchell's chap. 5 + more)**
- ◆ 22.09: More on ML & Types (chap. 5 and 6)
- ◆ 13.10: More on Types, Type Inference and Polymorphism (chap. 6)
- ◆ ???.??: Control in sequential languages, Exceptions and Continuations (chap. 8)
- ◆ ???.??: Prolog I
- ◆ ???.??: Prolog II