

Today

- Finish course motivaton
- Summarize what we've learned with a concise and well-known notation for recursively-defined language constructs
- Begin first-class functions

Why these 3?

Functional programming (ML, Scheme) encourages recursion, discourages mutation, provides elegant, lightweight support for first-class code. Support for extensibility complements OO.

- ML has a polymorphic type system (vindication imminent!) complementary to OO-style subtyping, a rich module system for abstract types, and rich pattern-matching.
- Scheme has dynamic typing, "good" macros, fascinating control operators, and a minimalist design.
- Smalltalk has classes but not types, an unconventional environment, and a complete commitment to OO.

Runners-up: Haskell (laziness and purity), Prolog (unification and backtracking), thousands of others...

Why not some popular ones?

- Java: you know it, will contrast at end of course (e.g., interfaces, anonymous inner classes, container types)
- C: lots of "implementation-dependent" behavior (a bad property), and we have CSE303
- $\bullet\$ C++: an enormous language, and unsafe like C
- Perl: advantages (strings, files, ...) not foci of this course. Python or Ruby would be closer.

Summary and Some Notation

Learned the syntax, typing rules, and semantics for (a big) part of ML Can summarize *abstract syntax* with (E)BNF. Informally:

$$t ::= int | bool | unit | dtname$$

$$| t_1 \rightarrow t_2 | t_1 * t_2 | \{x1=t_1, \dots, xn=t_n\}$$

$$e ::= 34 | x | (e_1, e_2) | if e_1 then e_2 else e_3$$

$$| let b_1 \dots b_n in e end | e_1 e_2$$

$$| case e of p_1 \Rightarrow e_1 | \dots | p_n \Rightarrow e_n$$

$$| e_1 + e_2 | \{x1=e_1, \dots, xn=e_n\} | C e$$

$$b ::= val p = e | fun f p = e$$

$$| datatype dtname = C1 of t_1 | \dots | Cn of t_n$$

$$p ::= 34 | x |_{-} | C p | (p_1, p_2) | \{x1=p_1, \dots, xn=p_n\}$$
Things left out of this grammar: n-tuples, field-accessors, floating-point, boolean constants, andalso/orelse, lists, ...

First-Class Functions

- Functions are values. (Variables in the environment are bound to them.)
- We can pass functions to other functions.
 - Factor common parts and abstract different parts.
- Most polymorphic functions take functions as arguments.

- Non-example: fun f x = 42

• Some functions taking functions are polymorphic.

Type Inference and Polymorphism

ML can infer function types based on function bodies. Possibilities:

- The argument/result must be one specific type.
- The argument/result can be *any* type, but may have to be the *same type* as other parts of argument/result.
- Some hand-waving about "equality types"

We will study this *parametric polymorphism* more next week.

Without it, ML would be a pain (e.g., a different list library for every list-element type).

Fascinating: If f:int->int, there are lots of values f could return. If f:'a->'a, whenever f returns, it returns its argument!

Anonymous Functions

As usual, we can write functions anywhere we write expressions.

• We already could:

(let fun f x = e in f end)

• Here is a more concise way (better style when possible):

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(fn x \Rightarrow e)
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• Cannot do this for recursive functions (why?)

Returning Functions

Syntax note: -> "associates to the right"

• t1->t2->t3 means t1->(t2->t3)

Again, there is nothing new here.

The key question: What about *free variables* in a function value? What *environment* do we use to *evaluate* them?

Are such free variables useful?

You must understand the answers to move beyond being a novice programmer.