If we have a call

(map slow-function long-list)
where slow-function executes
slowly and long-list is a large
data structure, we can expect to
wait quite a while for
computation of the result list to
complete.

```
Now consider fastmap, a version
of map that uses futures:
(define (fastmap f L)
    (if (null? L)
        ()
        (cons
        (future (f (car L)))
        (fastmap f (cdr L))
        )
    )
Now look at the call
(fastmap slow-function long-list)
```

We will exploit a useful aspect of futures—they can be cons'ed together *without delay*, even if the computation isn't completed yet.

Why? Well a **cons** just stores a pair of pointers, and it really doesn't matter what the pointers reference (a future or an actual result value).

The call to **fastmap** can actually return before *any* of the call to **slow-function** have completed:







Note that **pcall** can be implemented using futures.

That is, instead of (pcall F X Y Z) we can use ((future F) (future X) (future Y) (future Z)) In fact the latter version is actually more parallel—execution of F can begin even if all the parameters aren't completely evaluated.

ANOTHER EXAMPLE OF FUTURES

```
The following function,
partition, will take a list and a
data value (called pivot).
partition will partition the list
into two sublists:
(a) Those elements \leq pivot
(b) Those elements > pivot
(define (partition pivot L)
 (if (null? L)
   (cons () () )
   (let ((tail-part
         (partition pivot (cdr L))))
     (if (<= (car L) pivot)
      (cons
        (cons (car L) (car tail-part))
        (cdr tail-part))
      (cons
        (car tail-part))
        (cons (car L) (cdr tail-part))
     )
))))
```

We want to add futures to partition, but where?

It makes sense to use a future when a computation may be lengthy and we may not need to use the value computed immediately.

What computation fits that pattern?

The computation of tail-part. We'll mark it in a blue box to show we plan to evaluate it using a future:

```
(define (partition pivot L)
 (if (null? L)
   (cons () () )
   (let ((tail-part
         (partition pivot (cdr L)))
     (if (<= (car L) pivot)
      (cons
       (cons (car L) (car tail-part))
        (cdr tail-part))
      (cons
       (car tail-part))
       (cons (car L) (cdr tail-part))
     )
))))
But this one change isn't enough!
We soon access the car and cdr
of tail-part, which forces us to
wait for its computation to
complete. To avoid this delay, we
can place the four references to
car or cdr of tail-part into
futures too:
```



Now we can build the initial part of the partitioned list (that involving **pivot** and (**car L**) *independently* of the recursive call of **partition**, which completes the rest of the list.

For example,

(partition 17 '(5 3 8 ...))

creates a future (call it **future1**) to compute

(partition 17 '(3 8 ...))

It also creates **future2** to compute (**car tail-part**) and **future3** to compute (**cdr tailpart**). The call builds



Reading Assignment

- Introduction to Standard ML (linked from class web page)
- Webber: Chapters 5, 7, 9, 11

ML-META LANGUAGE

SML is *Standard ML*, a popular ML variant.

ML is a functional language that is designed to be efficient and typesafe. It demonstrates that a functional language need not use Scheme's odd syntax and need not bear the overhead of dynamic typing.

SML's features and innovations include:

1. Strong, compile-time typing.

2. Automatic *type inference* rather than user-supplied type declarations.

3. Polymorphism, including "type variables."

A good ML reference is "Elements of ML Programming," by Jeffrey Ullman (Prentice Hall, 1998)

SML is Interactive

You enter a definition or expression, and SML returns a result *with* an inferred type.

The command

```
use "file name";
```

loads a set of ML definitions from a file.

For example (SML responses are in blue):

```
21;
val it = 21 : int
(2 div 3);
val it = 0 : int
true;
val it = true : bool
"xyz";
val it = "xyz" : string
```

Basic SML Predefined Types

• Unit

Its only value is (). Type **unit** is similar to **void** in C; it is used where a type is needed, but no "real" type is appropriate. For example, a call to a write function may return **unit** as its result.

Integer

Constants are sequences of digits. Negative values are prefixed with a ~ rather than a – (– is a binary subtraction operator). For example, ~123 is negative 123. Standard operators include

- + * div mod
- < > <= >= = <>

• Real

Both fractional (123.456) and exponent forms (10e7) are allowed. Negative signs and exponents use ~ rather than -(~10.0e~12).

Standard operators include

+ - * / < > <= >=

Note that = and <> *aren't* allowed! (Why?)

Conversion routines include real(int) to convert an int to a real,

floor(real) to take the floor of a **real**,

ceil(real) to take the ceiling of a **real**.

round(real) to round a real,
trunc(real) to truncate a real.

For example, real(3) returns 3.0, floor(3.1) returns 3, ceiling(3.3) returns 4, round(~3.6) returns ~4, trunc(3.9) returns 3. Mixed mode expressions, like 1 + 2.5 aren't allowed; you must do explicit conversion, like real(1) + 2.5

Strings

Strings are delimited by double
quotes. Newlines are \n, tabs are
\t, and \" and \\ escape double
quotes and backslashes. E.g. "Bye
now\n" The ^ operator is
concatenation.
"abc" ^ "def" = "abcdef"
The usual relational operators are
provided: < > <= >= = <>

Characters

Single characters are delimited by double quotes and prefixed by a #. For example, **#"a"** or **#"\t"**. A character *is not* a string of length one. The **str** function may be used to convert a character into a string. Thus **str(#"a")** = **"a"**

• Boolean

Constants are **true** and **false**. Operators include **andalso** (shortcircuit and), **orelse** (short-circuit or), **not**, = and <>.

A conditional expression,

(if boolval v_1 else v_2) is available.

Tuples

```
A tuple type, composed of two or
more values of any type is
available.
Tuples are delimited by
parentheses, and values are
separated by commas.
Examples include:
(1,2);
val it = (1,2) : int * int
("xyz", 1=2);
val it = ("xyz",false) :
 string * bool
(1,3.0,false);
val it = (1,3.0,false) :
 int * real * bool
(1,2,(3,4));
val it = (1, 2, (3, 4)) :
int * int * (int * int)
```

Equality is checked componentwise:

(1,2) = (0+1,1+1);

val it = true : bool

(1,2,3) = (1,2) causes a compile-time type error (tuples must be of the same length and have corresponding types to be compared).

#i selects the i-th component of
a tuple (counting from 1). Hence
#2(1,2,3);

val it = 2 : int

Lists

Lists are required to have a single element type for all their elements; their length is unbounded.

Lists are delimited by [and] and elements are separated by commas.

Thus [1,2,3] is an integer list. The empty (or null) list is [] or nil.

The cons operator is ::

Hence [1,2,3] = 1::2::3::[] Lists are automatically typed by ML:

[1,2];

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

Cons

Cons is an infix operator represented as :: The left operand of **::** is any value of type **T**. The right operand of **:** is any list of type **T** list. The result of **::** is a list of type Tlist. Hence :: is *polymorphic*. [] is the empty list. It has a type **'a list**. The symbol **'a**, read as "alpha" or "tic a" is a *type variable*. Thus [] is a *polymorphic* constant.