

CMSC 330: Organization of Programming Languages

OCaml 2 Data Types & Recursion

This Lecture

- ▶ Tuples
- ▶ Polymorphic functions & types
- ▶ User-defined data types
- ▶ Defining recursive functions with `let rec`
- ▶ Recursive functions

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OCaml Functions Take One Argument

- ▶ Recall this example

```
let plus (x, y) = x + y;;  
plus (3, 4);;
```

- It looks like you're passing in two arguments
- ▶ Actually, you're passing in a **tuple** instead

```
let plus t = match t with  
  (x, y) -> x + y;;  
plus (3, 4);;
```

- And using pattern matching to extract its contents

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Tuples

- ▶ **Constructed** using `(e1, ..., en)`
- ▶ **Deconstructed** using pattern matching
- ▶ Tuples are like C structs
 - But without field labels
 - Allocated on the heap
- ▶ Tuples can be heterogenous
 - Unlike lists, which must be homogenous
 - `(1, ["string1"; "string2"])` is a valid tuple

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Tuples – Examples

- ▶ `let plusThree (x, y, z) = x+y+z`
`let addOne (x, y, z) = (x+1, y+1, z+1)`
 - `plusThree (addOne (3,4,5)) = 15`
- ▶ `let sum ((a, b), c) = (a+c, b+c)`
 - `sum ((1, 2), 3) = (4,5)`
- ▶ `let plusFirstTwo (x::y::_, a) = (x+a, y+a)`
 - `plusFirstTwo ([1; 2; 3], 4) = (5,6)`

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Tuples – More Examples

- ▶ `let t1s (_::xs, _::ys) = (xs, ys)`
 - `t1s ([1;2;3], [4;5;6;7]) = ([2;3], [5;6;7])`
- ▶ Remember
 - Semicolon for lists
 - Comma for tuples
- ▶ Example
 - `[1, 2] = [ (1, 2) ]` = a list of size one
 - `(1; 2)` = a syntax error

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Another Tuple Example

- ▶ Given
 - `let f l = match l with x::(_::y) -> (x,y)`
- ▶ What is the value of
 - `f [1;2;3;4]`
- ▶ Possibilities
 - `(([1], [3]))`
 - `(1,3)`
 - `(1, [3])`
 - `(1,4)`
 - `(1, [3;4])` ←

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List and Tuple Types

- ▶ Tuple types use `*` to separate components
- ▶ Examples
 - `(1,2) : int * int`
 - `(1,"string",3.5) : int * string * float`
 - `(1,["a";"b"],'c') : int * string list * char`
 - `[(1,2)] : (int * int) list`
 - `[(1,2);(3,4)] : (int * int) list`
 - `[(1,2);(1,2,3)] : error`

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Polymorphic Functions

- ▶ Some functions require specific list types
 - `let plusFirstTwo (x::y::_, a) = (x + a, y + a)`
 - `plusFirstTwo : int list * int -> (int * int)`
- ▶ But other functions work for a list of any type
 - `let hd (h::_) = h`
 - `hd [1; 2; 3] (* returns 1 *)`
 - `hd ["a"; "b"; "c"] (* returns "a" *)`
- ▶ These functions are **polymorphic**

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Polymorphic Types

- ▶ OCaml gives such functions **polymorphic** types
 - `hd : 'a list -> 'a`
 - Read as
 - Function takes a list of any element type 'a
 - And returns something of that type
- ▶ Example
 - `let tl (_::t) = t`
 - `tl : 'a list -> 'a list`

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Polymorphic Types (cont.)

- ▶ More Examples
 - `let swap (x, y) = (y, x)`
`swap : 'a * 'b -> 'b * 'a`
 - `let tls (_::xs, _::ys) = (xs, ys)`
`tls : 'a list * 'b list -> 'a list * 'b list`

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Tuples Are a Fixed Size

- ▶ This OCaml definition
 - `# let foo x = match x with`
`→ (a, b) -> a + b`
`| (a, b, c) -> a + b + c;;`
- ▶ Would yield this error message
 - This pattern matches values of type `'a * 'b * 'c'` but is here used to match values of type `'d * 'e'`
- ▶ Tuples of different size have different types
 - Thus never more than one match case with tuples

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OCaml Data

- So far, we've seen the following kinds of data
 - Basic types (int, float, char, string)
 - Lists
 - One kind of data structure
 - A list is either [] or h::t, deconstructed with pattern matching
 - Tuples
 - Let you collect data together in fixed-size pieces
 - Functions
- How can we build other data structures?
 - Building everything from lists and tuples is awkward

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User Defined Types

- **type** can be used to create new names for types
 - Useful for combinations of lists and tuples
- Examples
 - `type my_type = int * (int list)`
`(3, [1; 2]) : my_type`
 - `type my_type2 = int * char * (int * float)`
`(3, 'a', (5, 3.0)) : my_type2`

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Data Types

- **type** can also be used to create **variant types**
 - Equivalent to C-style unions

```
type shape =  
  Rect of float * float (* width * length *)  
  | Circle of float      (* radius *)
```

- **Rect** and **Circle** are **type constructors**
 - Here a **shape** is either a **Rect** or a **Circle**

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Data Types (cont.)

```
let area s =  
  match s with  
    Rect (w, l) -> w *. l  
  | Circle r -> r *. r *. 3.14  
  
area (Rect (3.0, 4.0))  
area (Circle 3.0)
```

- Use pattern matching to **deconstruct** values
 - **s** is a **shape**
 - Do different things for **s** depending on its constructor

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Data Types (cont.)

```
type shape =  
  Rect of float * float (* width * length *)  
  | Circle of float      (* radius *)  
  
let l = [Rect (3.0, 4.0) ; Circle 3.0]
```

- What's the type of **l**?
shape list
- What's the type of **l**'s first element?
shape

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Data Types Constructor

- Constructors must begin with uppercase letter
- The **arity** of a constructor
 - Is the number of arguments it takes
 - A constructor with no arguments is **nullary**

```
type optional_int =  
  None  
  | Some of int
```

- Example
 - Arity of **None** = 0
 - Arity of **Some** = 1

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Polymorphic Data Types

```
type optional_int =  
  None  
  | Some of int  
let add_with_default a = function  
  None -> a + 42  
  | Some n -> a + n  
add_with_default 3 None      (* 45 *)  
add_with_default 3 (Some 4)  (* 7  *)
```

- This option type can work with any kind of data
 - In fact, this option type is built into OCaml

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Recursive Data Types

- We can build up lists this way

```
type 'a list =  
  Nil  
  | Cons of 'a * 'a list  
  
let rec len = function  
  Nil -> 0  
  | Cons (_, t) -> 1 + (len t)  
  
len (Cons (10, Cons (20, Cons (30, Nil))))
```

- Won't have nice `[1; 2; 3]` syntax for this kind of list

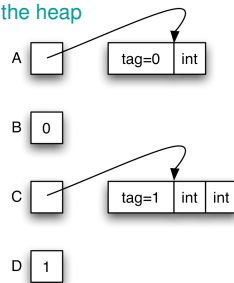
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Data Type Representations

- Values in a data type are stored
 1. Directly as integers
 2. As pointers to blocks in the heap

```
type t =  
  A of int  
  | B  
  | C of int * int  
  | D
```



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Exercise: A Binary Tree Data Type

- Write type `bin_tree` for binary trees over `int`
 - Trees should be ordered (binary search tree)
- Implement the following

```
empty : bin_tree  
is_empty : bin_tree -> bool  
member : int -> bin_tree -> bool  
insert : int -> bin_tree -> bin_tree  
remove : int -> bin_tree -> bin_tree  
equal : bin_tree -> bin_tree -> bool  
fold : (int -> 'a -> 'a) -> bin_tree  
      -> 'a -> 'a
```

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Type Annotations

- The syntax `(e : t)` asserts that “e has type t”
 - This can be added anywhere you like

```
let (x : int) = 3  
let z = (x : int) + 5
```
- Use to give functions parameter and return types

```
let fn (x:int):float = (float_of_int x) *. 3.14
```

 - Note special position for return type
 - Thus `let g x:int = ...` means `g` returns `int`
- Not needed for this course
- But can be useful for debugging
 - Especially for more complicated types

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Conditionals

- Use `if...then...else` just like C/Java
 - No parentheses and no end

```
if grade >= 90 then  
  print_string "You got an A"  
else if grade >= 80 then  
  print_string "You got a B"  
else if grade >= 70 then  
  print_string "You got a C"  
else  
  print_string "You're not doing so well"
```

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Conditionals (cont.)

- ▶ In OCaml, conditionals return a result
 - The value of whichever branch is true/false
 - Like `?:` in C, C++, and Java
- ```
if 7 > 42 then "hello" else "goodbye";;
- : string = "goodbye"
let x = if true then 3 else 4;;
x : int = 3
if false then 3 else 3.0;;
This expression has type float but is
here used with type int
```

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## The Factorial Function

- ▶ Using conditionals & functions
    - Can you write `fact`, the factorial function?
- ```
let rec fact n =  
  if n = 0 then  
    1  
  else  
    n * fact (n-1);;
```
- ▶ Notice no return statements
 - This is pretty much how it needs to be written

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Let Rec

- ▶ The `rec` part means “define a recursive function”
- ▶ Let vs. let rec
 - `let x = e1 in e2` `x` in scope within `e2`
 - `let rec x = e1 in e2` `x` in scope within `e2` and `e1`
- ▶ Why use let rec?
 - If you used `let` instead of `let rec` to define `fact`

```
let fact n =  
  if n = 0 then 1  
  else n * fact (n-1) in e2
```

Fact is not bound here!

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Examples – Let

- ▶ `x;;`
 - (* Unbound value x *)
- ▶ `let x = 1 in x + 1;;`
 - (* 2 *)
- ▶ `let x = x in x + 1;;`
 - (* Unbound value x *)

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Examples – Let

- ▶ `let x = 1 in (x + 1 ; x) ;;`
 - (* 1 - ; has higher precedence than let ... in *)
- ▶ `(let x = 1 in x + 1) ; x;;`
 - (* Unbound value x *)
- ▶ `let x = 4 in (let x = x + 1 in x);;`
 - (* 5 *)

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Let – More Examples

- ▶ `let f n = 10;;`
`let f n = if n = 0 then 1 else n * f (n-1);;`
 - `f 0;;` (* 1 *)
 - `f 1;;` (* 10 *)
- ▶ `let f x = ... f ... in ... f ...`
 - (* Unbound value f *)
- ▶ `let rec f x = ... f ... in ... f ...`
 - (* Bound value f *)

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Recursion = Looping

- Recursion is essentially the only way to iterate
 - The only way we're going to talk about, anyway
 - Feature of functional programming languages
- Another example

```
let rec print_up_to (n, m) =  
  print_int n; print_string "\n";  
  if n < m then print_up_to (n + 1, m)
```

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Lists and Recursion

- Lists have a recursive structure
 - And so most functions over lists will be recursive

```
let rec length l = match l with  
  [] -> 0  
  | (_::t) -> 1 + (length t)
```

- This is just like an inductive definition
 - The length of the empty list is zero
 - The length of a nonempty list is 1 plus the length of the tail
- Type of length?

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Examples – Recursive Functions

- `sum l` (* sum of elts in l *)

```
let rec sum l = match l with  
  [] -> 0  
  | (x::xs) -> x + (sum xs)
```
- `negate l` (* negate elements in list *)

```
let rec negate l = match l with  
  [] -> []  
  | (x::xs) -> (-x) :: (negate xs)
```

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Examples – Recursive Functions

- `last l` (* last element of l *)

```
let rec last l = match l with  
  [x] -> x  
  | (_::xs) -> last xs
```
- `append (l, m)`
(* list containing all elements in list l followed by all elements in list m *)

```
let rec append (l, m) = match l with  
  [] -> m  
  | (x::xs) -> x::(append (xs, m))
```

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Examples – Recursive Functions

- `rev l` (* reverse list; hint: use append *)

```
let rec rev l = match l with  
  [] -> []  
  | (x::xs) -> append ((rev xs), [x])
```
- `rev` takes $O(n^2)$ time. Can you do better?

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A Clever Version of Reverse

- ```
let rec rev_helper (l, a) = match l with
 [] -> a
 | (x::xs) -> rev_helper (xs, (x::a))
let rev l = rev_helper (l, [])
```
- Let's give it a try  

```
rev [1; 2; 3] ->
rev_helper ([1;2;3], []) ->
rev_helper ([2;3], [1]) ->
rev_helper ([3], [2;1]) ->
rev_helper ([], [3;2;1]) ->
[3;2;1]
```

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## Examples – Recursive Functions

- `flattenPairs l (* ('a * 'a) list -> 'a list *)`  
`let rec flattenPairs l = match l with`  
 `[] -> []`  
`| ((a, b)::t) -> a :: b :: (flattenPairs t)`
- `take (n, l) (* return first n elements of l *)`  
`let rec take (n, l) =`  
 `if n = 0 then []`  
 `else match l with`  
 `[] -> []`  
 `| (x::xs) -> x :: (take (n-1, xs))`

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## Working with Lists

- Several of these examples have the same flavor
  - Walk through the list and do something to every element
  - Walk through the list and keep track of something
- Recall the following example code from Ruby:

```
a = [1,2,3,4,5]
b = a.collect { |x| -x }
```

- Here we passed a code block into the `collect` method
- Wouldn't it be nice to do the same in OCaml?

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