#### IT5100A

Industry Readiness:

Typed Functional Programming

#### **Types**

Foo Yong Qi yongqi@nus.edu.sg

```
000
       f :: [Int] -> [Int]
       f(x:xs) =
           let r = f xs
           in r ++ [x]
       main :: IO ()
       main = do
           let x = [1..10]
           print $ f x
```



### Type Systems

A tractable syntactic method for proving the absence of certain program behaviours by classifying phrases according to the kinds of values they compute

### Type Systems

A system to show that there won't be type errors

### **Types**

A type is some kind of thing

- Gives meaning to something
- Description of what its inhabitants are like

```
>>> x = 1
>>> type(x)
<class 'int'>
>>> type('abc')
<class 'str'>
>>> class A: pass
>>> type(A())
<class '__main__.A'>
```

In Python, types more-or-less correspond to classes

### **Types**

We can declare something to be of a type with type declarations

```
# Python
def f(x: int) -> str:
    y: int = x * 2
    return f'{x} * 2 = {y}'
z: int
z = 3
s: str = f(z)
print(s) # 3 * 2 = 6
```

### **Types**

Type declarations in Haskell are done with ::

```
f:: Int -> String
f x = show x ++ " * 2 = " ++ show y
    where y = x * 2
z :: Int
z = 3
s :: String
s = f z -- 3 * 2 = 6
```

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#### Some basic Haskell types:

Int, Char, [Char] (a.k.a. String), [Int], Bool, Double, etc.

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$$\frac{\Gamma, x: S \vdash e: T}{\Gamma \vdash \lambda x. e: S \rightarrow T}$$

Assumption that x has type S

Judgement that e has type T

Typing environment (types of surrounding code)

$$\frac{\Gamma, x: S \vdash e: T}{\Gamma \vdash \lambda x. e: S \rightarrow T}$$

Judgement that  $\lambda x.e$  has type  $S \rightarrow T$ 

$$\frac{\Gamma, x: S \vdash e: T}{\Gamma \vdash \lambda x. e: S \rightarrow T}$$

Since, if x has type int then x \* 2 has type int, Then lambda x: x \* 2 has type int -> int

$$\frac{\Gamma, x: S \vdash e: T}{\Gamma \vdash \lambda x. e: S \rightarrow T}$$

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-> is right-associative a -> b -> c == a -> (b -> c)

Types of everything in Haskell are **fixed**, type declarations can be omitted due to **type inference** 

```
f:: Int -> String -- explicit type declaration
f x = show x ++ "!"

g x = x + 1 -- type of g is inferred
```

Good habit to declare types (in Python too)

#### Compiler will reject program that is ill-typed

"If it compiles, it works"

Bindings

$$x = e$$

Type of x must be same as type of e

Conditionals

if x then y else z

- Type of x must be Bool
- Types of y and z must both be same as some  $\alpha$
- Entire expression has type  $\alpha$

**Function Applications** 

fx

- Type of f must be  $\alpha \rightarrow \beta$
- Type of x must be  $\alpha$
- Entire expression has type **6**

**Function Definitions** 

$$f x = e$$

- Type of f must be  $\alpha \rightarrow \beta$
- Assuming x has type  $\alpha$ , e must have type  $\theta$

```
f:: Int -> Int -> [Int]
f x n =
   if n == 0 then
   []
   else
    let r = f x (n - 1)
    in x : r
```

```
x, n :: Int
f :: Int -> Int -> [Int]
f x n =
    if n == 0 then
    []
    else
        let r = f x (n - 1)
        in x : r
if ... :: [Int]
```

```
n == 0 :: Bool
```

```
f:: Int -> Int -> [Int]
f x n =
    if n == 0 then
    else
    let r = f x (n - 1)
    in x : r
```

```
[]::[Int] => OK
x:r::[Int]
```

```
(==) :: Int -> Int -> Bool
n == 0 :: Bool => OK
```

```
f:: Int -> Int -> [Int]
f x n =
    if n == 0 then
    []
    else
       let r = f x (n - 1)
       in x : r
```

```
f :: Int -> Int -> [Int]
f x n =
  if n == 0 then
  []
  else
    let r = f x (n - 1)
    in x : r
```

```
(:) :: Int -> [Int] -> [Int]
x : r :: [Int]
x :: Int
=> r :: [Int]
```

```
f:: Int -> Int -> [Int]
f x n =
  if n == 0 then
  []
  else
    let r = f x (n - 1)
    in x : r
```

```
f :: Int -> Int -> [Int]
x, (n - 1) :: Int
r :: [Int] => OK
```

```
f :: Int -> String
f x =
    let sx :: String = show x
        {- show :: Int -> String
           show x :: String -}
        y :: Int = x * 2
        {- (*) :: Int -> Int -> Int
           x * 2 :: Int -}
        sy :: String = show y
        {- (++) :: String -> String -> String
           SX ++ " * 2 = " :: String - 
    in sx ++ " * 2 = " ++ sy
```

```
f :: Int -> String
```

```
f :: Int -> String
f x =
        {- (*) :: Int -> Int -> Int
           x * 2 :: Int -}
```

```
f :: Int -> String
f x =
    let sx :: String = show x
        y :: Int = x * 2
```

```
f :: Int -> String
f x =
        {- show :: Int -> String
           show x :: String -}
```

```
f :: Int -> String
f x =
    let sx :: String = show x
        sy :: String = show y
```

```
f :: Int -> String
f x =
        {- (++) :: String -> String -> String
           SX ++ " * 2 = " :: String -
```

```
f :: Int -> String
f x =
    let sx :: String = show x
    in sx ++ " * 2 = " ++ sy
```

```
f :: Int -> String
f x =
    let sx :: String = show x
        {- show :: Int -> String
           show x :: String -}
        y :: Int = x * 2
        {- (*) :: Int -> Int -> Int
           x * 2 :: Int -}
        sy :: String = show y
        {- (++) :: String -> String -> String
           SX ++ " * 2 = " :: String - 
    in sx ++ " * 2 = " ++ sy
```

This is particularly useful when defining recursive functions

```
sum' :: [Int] -> Int
sum' 1s =
    if null ls then
        0 -- return type must be Int
    else
        let r :: Int = sum' (tail ls)
        {- tail :: [Int] -> [Int]
           tail ls :: [Int]
           sum' :: [Int] -> Int
           sum' (tail ls) :: Int -}
            hd :: Int = head ls
            {- head :: [Int] -> Int
               head Ls :: Int -}
        in hd + r
```

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This is particularly useful when defining recursive functions

```
sum' :: [Int] -> Int
```

```
sum' :: [Int] -> Int
sum' ls =
        0 -- return type must be Int
```

```
sum' :: [Int] -> Int
sum' 1s =
        {- tail :: [Int] -> [Int]
           tail ls :: [Int]
           sum' :: [Int] -> Int
           sum' (tail ls) :: Int -}
```

```
sum' :: [Int] -> Int
sum' ls =
        let r :: Int = sum' (tail ls)
```

```
sum' :: [Int] -> Int
sum' ls =
            {- head :: [Int] -> Int
               head Ls :: Int -}
```

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```
sum' :: [Int] -> Int
sum' ls =
            hd :: Int = head ls
```

```
sum' :: [Int] -> Int
sum' 1s =
        let r :: Int = sum' (tail ls)
            hd :: Int = head ls
        in hd + r
```

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Enforcing type safety can be done on Python programs with pyright!



You may also use other static type checkers for Python

#### Let's try it!

```
# main.py
def f(x: int, y: int) -> int:
    z = x / y
    return z
```

#### Checking with pyright...

```
$ pyright main.py
/home/main.py:4:12 - error:
    Expression of type "float" is incompatible with return
    type "int"
    "float" is incompatible with "int" (reportReturnType)
1 error, 0 warnings, 0 informations
```

#### Correct the program and check again

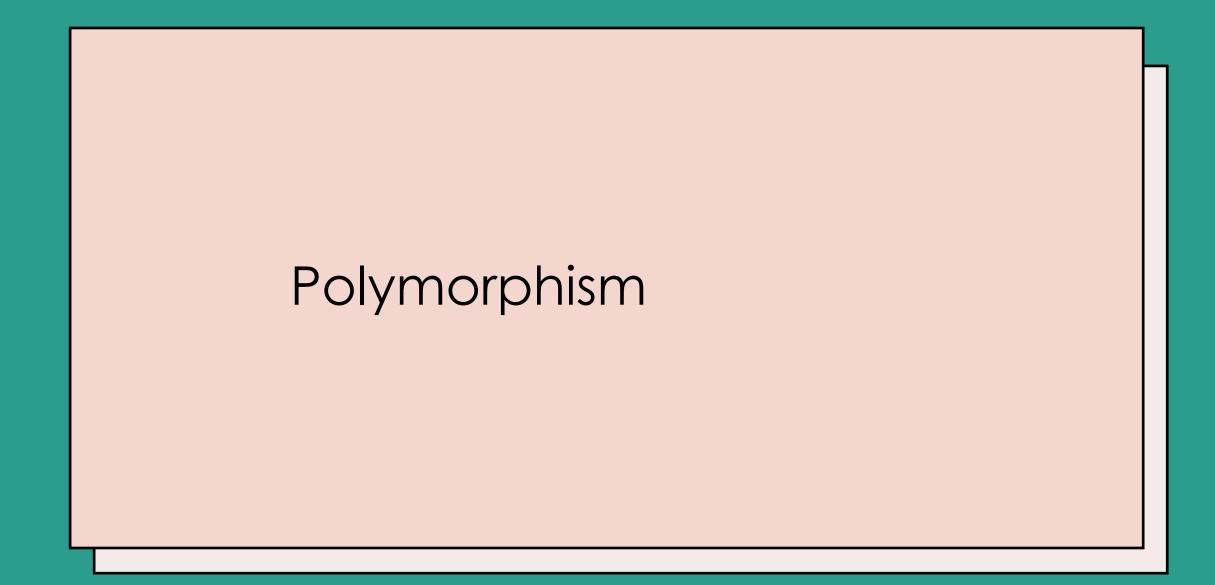
```
# main.py
def f(x: int, y: int) -> int:
    z = x // y
    return z
```

#### Checking with pyright...

```
$ pyright main.py
0 errors, 0 warnings, 0 informations
```



Include pyright (or some Python language server with static type checking) with your editor to show type errors as you write your code



#### Functions: terms depend on terms

$$f(x) = x \times 2$$

$$f(2) = 4$$
  $f(3) = 6$ 

## Polymorphism

When types/terms depend on types

#### Types depending on types

```
# Python
@dataclass
class IntBox:
    value: int
```

```
# Python
@dataclass
class StrBox:
   value: str
```

Core programming principle: when a pattern is found, retain similarities and parameterize differences

# # Python @dataclass class IntBox: value: int # Python @dataclass class StrBox: value: str

Difference

Parameterize the **types**!

# In Python and many 00 languages, **Box** is called a **generic** or **parametrically polymorphic** type

```
# Python 3.12
@dataclass
class Box[a]:
    value: a
```

```
x: Box[int] = Box[int](1)
y: Box[str] = Box[str]('a')
z: Box[Box[int]] = Box(Box(1))
bad: Box[int] = Box[int]('a')
```

Types can depend on types!

```
# Python 3.12
def singleton_int(x: int) -> list[int]:
    return [x]
def singleton_str(x: str) -> list[str]:
    return [x]
def singleton[a](x: a) -> list[a]:
    return [x]
x: list[int] = singleton(1)
y: list[str] = singleton('a')
bad: list[bool] = singleton(2)
```

```
# Python 3.12
def singleton_int(x: int) -> list[int]:
    return [x]
def singleton_str(x: str) -> list[str]:
    return [x]
```

Same implementation, different types

```
# Python 3.12
def singleton[a](x: a) -> list[a]:
    return [x]
```

Make function receive type parameter

```
# Python 3.12
x: list[int] = singleton(1)
y: list[str] = singleton('a')
bad: list[bool] = singleton(2)
```

Same function returns different types!

```
# Python 3.12
def singleton_int(x: int) -> list[int]:
    return [x]
def singleton_str(x: str) -> list[str]:
    return [x]
def singleton[a](x: a) -> list[a]:
    return [x]
x: list[int] = singleton(1)
y: list[str] = singleton('a')
bad: list[bool] = singleton(2)
```

Terms can depend on types!

## Polymorphism in Haskell

In Haskell, types are capitalized, type parameters are lowercase

```
ghci> :t head
head :: [a] -> a

ghci> singleton x = [x]
ghci> :t singleton
singleton :: a -> [a]

ghci> :t (.)
(.) :: (b -> c) -> (a -> b) -> a -> c
```

Huh?

```
(.) :: x \to y \to e \to r
(.) g f x = g (f x)
```

Let us inspect the type signature of (.)

(.) :: 
$$(d \rightarrow c) \rightarrow (a \rightarrow b) \rightarrow e \rightarrow r$$
  
(.) g f x = g (f x)

We know that **f** and **g** are some functions Let their types be **a** -> **b** and **d** -> **c** for some **a**, **b**, **c**, **d** respectively

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(.) :: 
$$(d \rightarrow c) \rightarrow (a \rightarrow b) \rightarrow a \rightarrow r$$
  
(.) g f x = g (f x)

f has type a -> b so x must have type a

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(.) :: 
$$(b \rightarrow c) \rightarrow (a \rightarrow b) \rightarrow a \rightarrow r$$
  
(.) g f x = g (f x)

f x has type b so g must have type b -> c

(.) :: 
$$(b \rightarrow c) \rightarrow (a \rightarrow b) \rightarrow a \rightarrow c$$
  
(.) g f x = g (f x)

g (f x) has type c so (.) g f x must return c

(.) :: 
$$(b \rightarrow c) \rightarrow (a \rightarrow b) \rightarrow a \rightarrow c$$
  
(.) g f x = g (f x)

Compiler does this automatically via type inference

## Polymorphism

When to define polymorphic types/functions?

When **implementations** of classes/data types/functions are the **same** except the **types** 

#### Example: container types!

```
@dataclass
class IntTree:
    pass
@dataclass
class IntNode(IntTree):
    left: IntTree
    value: int
    right: IntTree
@dataclass
class IntLeaf(IntTree):
    value: int
```

```
@dataclass
class StrTree:
    pass
@dataclass
class StrNode(StrTree):
    left: StrTree
    value: str
    right: StrTree
@dataclass
class StrLeaf(StrTree):
    value: str
```

Example: container types!

```
@dataclass
class Tree[a]:
    pass
@dataclass
class Node[a](Tree[a]):
    left: Tree[a]
    value: a
    right: Tree[a]
@dataclass
class Leaf[a](Tree[a]):
    value: a
```

Example: generic operations on polymorphic types!

```
def reverse_int(ls: list[int]) ->
list[int]:
    return [] if not ls else \
        reverse_int(ls[1:]) + [ls[0]]
```

```
def reverse_str(ls: list[str]) ->
list[str]:
    return [] if not ls else \
        reverse_str(ls[1:]) + [ls[0]]
```

Example: generic operations on polymorphic types!

```
def reverse[a](ls: list[a]) -> list[a]:
    return [] if not ls else \
        reverse(ls[1:]) + [ls[0]]
```

## Polymorphism

Class/function should be polymorphic if implementation is **independent of type** 



How do we create our own data types in Haskell?

A data type is usually composed of:

- Type and type and ... and type
- Type or type or ... or type

A data type is usually composed of:

- Type and type and ... and type
- Type or type or ... or type
- Fraction: numerator (Int) and denominator (Int)
- Student: name (String) and ID (Int)
- Bool: True or False
- String: Empty string or (head (Char) and tail (String))
- Tree a: (Leaf with value (a)) or (Node with value (a), left subtree (Tree a) and right subtree (Tree a))

# Algebraic Data Types

Types made of products (and) and/or sums (or)

# Algebraic Data Types

In Haskell, types are **sums** of one or more **constructors**; constructors are **products** of zero or more types

```
-- LHS Fraction is the name of type
-- RHS Fraction is the name of constructor
data Fraction = Fraction Int Int
half :: Fraction
half = Fraction 1 2
-- Constructor name not necessarily same as type name
data Student = S String Int
bob :: Student
bob = S "Bob" 123
```

```
-- Two constructors, each with zero types
data Bool = True | False
true, false :: Bool
true = True
false = False
-- Node is a constructor with two types
data String = EmptyString
             Node Char String
cat, empty :: String
cat = Node 'c' (Node 'a' (Node 't' EmptyString))
empty = EmptyString
```

#### We can also create polymorphic data types!

```
data Box a = Box a
data LinkedList a = EmptyList
                   Node a (LinkedList a)
data Tree a = Leaf a
            TreeNode (Tree a) a (Tree a)
x :: Box Int
x = Box 1
y :: LinkedList Char
y = Node 'a' (Node 'b' EmptyList)
```

#### Constructors are actually functions

```
ghci> data Fraction = F Int Int
ghci> :t F
F :: Int -> Int -> Fraction
ghci> :t F 1
F 1 :: Int -> Fraction
ghci> :t F 1 2
F 1 2 :: Fraction
```

Automatically create accessor functions of fields of data types by using **record syntax** 

```
ghci> data Student = S { name :: String, id :: Int }
ghci> x = S { name = "Alice", id = 123 }
ghci> y = S "Bob" 456
ghci> name x
"Alice"
ghci> id y
456
```

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#### Mix-and-match!

```
alice = UG "SoC" "Alice" 123
bob = PG ["SoC", "YLLSoM"] "Bob" 456
it5100a = C "IT5100A" 2 [alice]
it5100b = C "IT5100B" 2 [alice, bob]
cs = D "Computer Science" [it5100a, it5100b]
```

# More on Polymorphism

Mental model for polymorphic functions/types:

Function-like thing that quantifies over types

## Lambda Calculus

 $\lambda$  creates a function over a parameter

$$\lambda x.e$$

Calling the function substitutes x for the argument

$$(\lambda x. e_1)e_2 \equiv_{\beta} e_1[x \coloneqq e_2]$$

$$(\lambda x: \text{Int.} x + 4) 3 \equiv_{\beta} (x + 4)[x \coloneqq 3]$$
  
 $\equiv_{\beta} (3 + 4)$   
 $\equiv_{\beta} 7$ 

ghci> (x -> x + 4) 3
7

# System F

Polymorphic functions receive type parameter; can call with type argument (usually implicit in Haskell)

 $\Lambda \alpha$ . e

Calling the function with a **type** substitutes  $\alpha$  for the argument

$$(\Lambda \alpha. e) \tau \equiv_{\beta} e[\alpha \coloneqq \tau]$$

```
(\Lambda \alpha. \lambda x: \alpha. [x])Int \equiv_{\beta} (\lambda x: \alpha. [x])[\alpha := Int]
\equiv_{\beta} (\lambda x: Int. [x])
```

```
ghci> :set -XTypeApplications -fprint-explicit-foralls
ghci> :{
ghci f :: forall a. a -> [a]
ghci f x = [x]
ghci :}
ghci> :t f
f :: forall a. a -> [a]
ghci> :t f @Int
f @Int :: Int -> [Int]
ghci> f @Int 1
```

Polymorphic types can be seen as functions at the typelevel: functions that receive types and return types

```
ghci> data Pair a b = P a b
ghci> :k Pair
Pair :: * -> * -> *
ghci> :k Pair Int
Pair Int :: * -> *
ghci> :k Pair Int String
Pair Int String :: *
```

Types like Pair are also known as type constructors

Every type has a kind, "normal types" have kind \*, type constructors have kind \* -> \* etc

```
ghci> data Pair a b = P a b
ghci> :k Pair
Pair :: * -> * -> *
ghci> :k Pair Int
Pair Int :: * -> *
ghci> :k Pair Int String
Pair Int String :: *
```

Crazy: type constructors are like functions at the type level Can we have higher-ordered type constructors?

```
ghci> :set -fprint-explicit-foralls
ghci> data Crazy f a = C (f a)
ghci> :k Crazy
Crazy :: forall \{k\}. (k \rightarrow *) \rightarrow k \rightarrow *
ghci> :k Crazy []
Crazy [] :: * -> *
ghci> :k Crazy [] Int
Crazy [] Int :: *
ghci> x :: Crazy [] Int = C [1]
ghci> data Box a = B a
ghci> y :: Crazy Box Int = C (B 2)
```

Moral of the story: Polymorphism is when something can receive a type and give you a type/term

- 1. Can we have types that depend on terms?
- 2. Are there other kinds of polymorphism?

- 1. Yes: dependent types
- 2. Yes: subtype (OOP), ad-hoc (overloading, next week)

# **ADTs in Python**

Types are type declarations, constructors are classes

```
type List[a] = Node[a] | Empty
@dataclass
class Empty:
    pass
@dataclass
class Node[a]:
    head: a
    tail: List[a]
x: List[int] = Node(1, Node(2, Empty()))
```

# Alternative formulation: types are classes, constructors are subclasses containing typed fields

```
from typing import Any
@dataclass
class List[a]: pass
@dataclass
class Empty(List[Any]):
    pass
@dataclass
class Node[a](List[a]):
    head: a
    tail: List[a]
x: List[int] = Node(1, Node(2, Empty()))
```

#### **Important Difference**

Haskell: constructors are not types

Python: "constructors" are classes which are also types

Observation: subclass need not conform to declaration of superclass

```
class List[a]: pass

class Empty(List[Any]):
   pass
```

Another example: expressions in a programming language

```
class Expr[a]:
    def eval(self) -> a:
        raise Exception
```

Create expressions that evaluate to ints; note the inheritance relationship

```
@dataclass
class LitNumExpr(Expr[int]):
    n: int
    def eval(self) -> int:
        return self.n
@dataclass
class AddExpr(Expr[int]):
    lhs: Expr[int]
    rhs: Expr[int]
    def eval(self) -> int:
        return self.lhs.eval() + self.rhs.eval()
```

#### Expressions that evaluate to other things are also possible!

```
@dataclass
class EqExpr[a](Expr[boot]):
    lhs: Expr[a]
    rhs: Expr[a]
    def eval(self) -> bool:
        return self.lhs.eval() == self.rhs.eval()
@dataclass
class CondExpr[a](Expr[a]):
    cond: Expr[bool]
    true: Expr[a]
    false: Expr[a]
    def eval(self) -> a:
        if self.cond.eval():
            return self.true.eval()
        return self.false.eval()
```

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How do we customize our Haskell constructors to create specific specializations of polymorphic types?

# Generalized Algebraic Data Types (GADTs)

```
data LinkedList a where
   EmptyList :: LinkedList a -- this is a different a!
   Node :: b -> LinkedList b -> LinkedList b
```

```
data Expr a where
LitNumExpr :: Int -> Expr Int
AddExpr :: Expr Int -> Expr Int -> Expr Int
EqExpr :: Expr a -> Expr Bool
CondExpr :: Expr Bool -> Expr a -> Expr a -> Expr a
```

### Pattern Matching

Destructure data and match against patterns

#### case expression: match a term over a pattern

```
fac :: Int -> Int
fac n = case n of -- match n against these patterns:
    0 -> 1
    x -> x * fac (x - 1) -- any other Int
```

Patterns can even destructure constructors!

```
fst' :: (a, b) -> a
snd' :: (a, b) -> b
fst' p = case p of
    (x, ) \rightarrow x
snd' p = case p of
    (, y) \rightarrow y
data Fraction = F Int Int
numerator :: Fraction -> Int
numerator f = case f of
    F X -> X
```

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#### Even better: bring pattern matching up to definition

```
fac :: Int -> Int
fac 0 = 1
fac n = n * fac (n - 1)
fst' :: (a, b) -> a
snd' :: (a, b) -> b
fst'(x, _) = x
snd'(_, y) = y
data Fraction = F Int Int
numerator :: Fraction -> Int
numerator (F \times X) = X
```

#### List type declaration (sort of)

```
data [a] = [] | a : [a]
```

Pattern match against different list constructors!

```
sum' :: [Int] -> Int
sum' [] = 0
sum' (x : xs) = x + sum' xs

len :: [a] -> Int
len [] = 0
len (_ : xs) = 1 + len xs
```

#### You can use patterns in almost all bindings

```
len :: [a] -> Int
len [] = 0
len ls =
    let (_ : xs) = ls
    in 1 + len xs
```

#### Compiler can catch non-exhaustive pattern matches

```
-- Main.hs
emp :: [a] -> [a]
emp [] = []
```

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**Important**: terms are matched against patterns top-down

#### Can perform pattern matching against GADTs

```
eval :: Expr a -> a
eval (LitNumExpr n) = n
eval (AddExpr a b) = eval a + eval b
eval (EqExpr a b) = eval a == eval b
eval (CondExpr a b c) = if eval a then eval b else eval c
```

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#### Can perform pattern matching against GADTs

```
eval :: Expr a -> a
eval (LitNumExpr n) = n
eval $ ghc Main.hs
eval Main.hs:13:28: error:

    Could not deduce (Eq a1) arising from a use of '=='

eval
            from the context: a ~ Bool
              bound by a pattern with constructor:
                         EqExpr :: forall a. Expr a -> Expr a -> Expr Bool,
                       in an equation for 'eval'
              at app/Main.hs:13:7-16
            Possible fix:
              add (Eq a1) to the context of the data constructor 'EqExpr'

    In the expression: eval a == eval b

            In an equation for 'eval': eval (EqExpr a b) = eval a == eval b
           eval (EqExpr a b) = eval a == eval b
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```

Tell Haskell to enable the GADTs language extension

Ensure that a can be compared for equality (covered next week)

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## Pattern Matching in Python

match block with case clauses

```
def factorial(n: int) -> int:
   match n:
    case 0: return 1
    case n: return n * factorial(n - 1)
```

# Pattern Matching in Python

match block with case clauses

```
def sum(ls: list[int]) -> int:
    match ls:
        case []:
        return 0
        case (x, *xs):
        return x + sum(xs)
        case _:
        raise TypeError
```

#### Structural pattern matching is very useful in Python

```
@dataclass
class Tree[a]: pass
@dataclass
class Node[a](Tree[a]):
    val: a
    left: Tree[a]
    right: Tree[a]
@dataclass
class Leaf[a](Tree[a]):
    val: a
```

```
def preorder[a](tree: Tree[a]) -> list[a]:
    match tree:
        case Node(v, l, r):
            return [v] + preorder(L) \
                       + preorder(r)
        case Leaf(v):
            return [v]
        case :
            raise TypeError
```

# Exhaustiveness checks difficult; include catchall case or use union types for ADTs

```
type Tree[a] = Node[a]
             Leaf[a]
@dataclass
class Node[a](Tree[a]):
    val: a
    left: Tree[a]
    right: Tree[a]
@dataclass
class Leaf[a](Tree[a]):
    val: a
```

```
def preorder[a](tree: Tree[a]) -> list[a]:
    match tree:
        case Node(v, l, r):
            return [v] + preorder(L) \
                       + preorder(r)
        case Leaf(v):
            return [v]
        # no need for further cases
```

## When to use pattern matching?

if .. then .. else ..

Do different things based on **condition** 

case .. of ..

Do different things based on value/structure of data

# Thank you

Foo Yong Qi

yongqi@nus.edu.sg

https://yongqi.foo/

