

# Data, data everywhere

COS 326

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# **FUNCTIONAL DECOMPOSITION**

## Functional Decomposition

==

Break down complex problems in to a set of simple functions;  
Recombine (compose) functions to form solution

Such problems can often be solved using a *combinator library*.  
(a set of functions that fit together nicely)

The list library, which contains *map* and *fold*, is a combinator library.

# **PIPELINES**

# Pipe

```
let (|>) x f = f x
```

Type?

# Pipe

```
let (|>) x f = f x
```

Type?

```
(|>) : 'a -> ('a -> 'b) -> 'b
```

# Pipe

```
let (|>) x f = f x
```

```
let twice f x =
    x |> f |> f
```

# Pipe

```
let (|>) x f = f x
```

```
let twice f x =
  (x |> f) |> f
```



**left associative:**  $x |> f1 |> f2 |> f3 == ((x |> f1) |> f2) |> f3$

# Pipe

```
let (|>) x f = f x
```

```
let twice f x =
  x |> f |> f
```

```
let square x = x*x
```

```
let fourth x = twice square
```

# Pipe

```
let (|>) x f = f x
```

```
let twice f x = x |> f |> f
let square x = x*x
let fourth x = twice square x
```

```
let compute x =
  x |> square
    |> fourth
    |> ( * ) 3
    |> print_int
    |> print_newline
```

# **PIPING LIST PROCESSORS**

(Combining combinators cleverly)

# Another Problem

```
type student = {first: string;
                last: string;
                assign: float list;
                final: float}

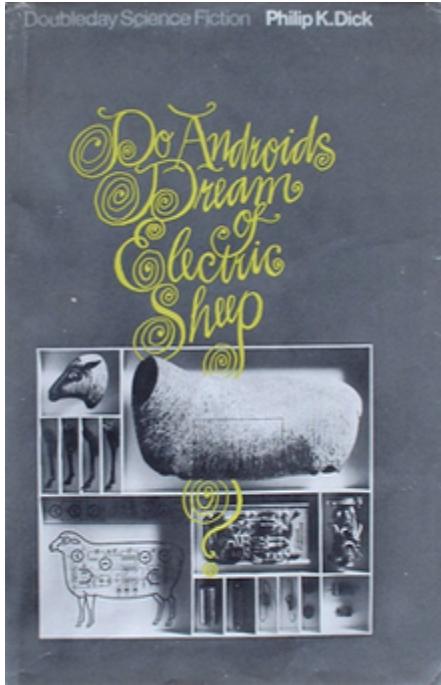
let students : student list =
  [
    {first  = "Sarah";
     last   = "Jones";
     assign = [7.0;8.0;10.0;9.0];
     final  = 8.5};

    {first  = "Qian";
     last   = "Xi";
     assign = [7.3;8.1;3.1;9.0];
     final  = 6.5};
  ]
```

# Another Problem

```
type student = {first: string;  
                last: string;  
                assign: float list;  
                final: float}
```

- Create a function **display** that does the following:
  - for each student, print the following:
    - **last\_name, first\_name: score**
    - **score** is computed by averaging the assignments with the final
      - each assignment is weighted equally
      - the final counts for twice as much
    - one student printed per line
    - students printed in order of score



(1968 novel)

Do Professors  
Dream  
of  
Homework-  
grade  
Databases  
?

# Another Problem

Create a function **display** that

- takes a list of students as an argument
- prints the following for each student:
  - **last\_name, first\_name: score**
  - **score** is computed by averaging the assignments with the final
    - each assignment is weighted equally
    - the final counts for twice as much
  - one student printed per line
  - students printed in order of score

```
let display (students : student list) : unit =
  students |> compute score
            |> sort by score
            |> convert to list of strings
            |> print each string
```

# Another Problem

```
let compute_score
{first=f; last=l; assign=grades; final=exam} =
    let sum x (num,tot) = (num +. 1., tot +. x) in
    let score gs e = List.fold_right sum gs (2., 2. *. e) in
    let (number, total) = score grades exam in
    (f, l, total /. number)
```

```
let display (students : student list) : unit =
    students |> List.map compute_score
              |> sort by score
              |> convert to list of strings
              |> print each string
```

# Another Problem

```
let student_compare (_,_ ,score1) (_,_ ,score2) =  
    if score1 < score2 then 1  
    else if score1 > score2 then -1  
    else 0
```

```
let display (students : student list) : unit =  
    students |> List.map compute_score  
            |> List.sort compare_score  
            |> convert to list of strings  
            |> print each string
```

# Another Problem

```
let stringify (first, last, score) =  
    last ^ ", " ^ first ^ ":" ^ string_of_float score
```

```
let display (students : student list) : unit =  
    students |> List.map compute_score  
    |> List.sort compare_score  
    |> List.map stringify  
    |> print each string
```

# Another Problem

```
let stringify (first, last, score) =  
  last ^ ", " ^ first ^ ":" ^ string_of_float score
```

```
let display (students : student list) : unit =  
  students |> List.map compute_score  
    |> List.sort compare_score  
    |> List.map stringify  
    |> List.iter print_endline
```

# **COMBINATORS FOR OTHER TYPES: PAIRS**

# Simple Pair Combinators

```
let both    f (x, y) = (f x, f y);;  
let do_fst f (x, y) = (f x,     y);;  
let do_snd f (x, y) = (  x, f y);;
```

pair combinators

# Example: Piping Pairs

```
let both    f (x, y) = (f x, f y);;
let do_fst f (x, y) = (f x,      y);;
let do_snd f (x, y) = (  x, f y);;
```

pair combinators

```
let even x = (x/2)*2 == x;;
```

```
let process (p : float * float) =
  p |> both int_of_float          (* convert to int *)
  |> do_fst ((/) 3)               (* divide fst by 3 *)
  |> do_snd ((/) 2)               (* divide snd by 2 *)
  |> both even                   (* test for even *)
  |> fun (x, y) -> x && y       (* both even *)
```

# When & how to create new combinator libraries?

***Whenever you see a need!***

Are there specialized programming domains you are familiar with?

Can you identify the repeated patterns in examples?

Can you factor out the repetitions into reuseable fragments?

Do you need to generalize to create uniformity?

Is there data that flows between components?

What types describe such data and form the interfaces?

**There is a lot of art, aesthetics, and experience involved.**

**ICFP is conference where you can find many interesting combinator libraries**

**<http://www.icfpconference.org/>**

# Summary

- (`|>`) passes data from one function to the next
  - compact, elegant, clear
- UNIX pipes (`|`) compose file processors
  - unix scripting with `|` is a kind of functional programming
  - but it isn't very general since `|` is not polymorphic
  - you have to serialize and unserialize your data at each step
    - there can be type (ie: file format) mismatches between steps
    - we avoided that in your assignment, which is pretty simple ...
- Higher-order *combinator libraries* arranged around types:
  - List combinators (map, fold, reduce, iter, ...)
  - Pair combinators (both, do\_fst, do\_snd, ...)
  - Network programming combinators (Frenetic: [frenetic-lang.org](http://frenetic-lang.org))

# OCaml Datatypes

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# OCaml So Far

- We have seen a number of basic types:
  - int
  - float
  - char
  - string
  - bool
- We have seen a few structured types:
  - pairs
  - tuples
  - options
  - lists
- In this lecture, we will see some more general ways to define our own new types and data structures

# Type Abbreviations

- We have already seen some type abbreviations:

```
type point = float * float
```

# Type Abbreviations

- We have already seen some type abbreviations:

```
type point = float * float
```

- These abbreviations can be helpful documentation:

```
let distance (p1:point) (p2:point) : float =
  let square x = x *. x in
  let (x1,y1) = p1 in
  let (x2,y2) = p2 in
  sqrt (square (x2 -. x1) +. square (y2 -. y1))
```

- But they add nothing of *substance* to the language
  - they are **equal** in every way to an existing type

# Type Abbreviations

- We have already seen some type abbreviations:

```
type point = float * float
```

- As far as OCaml is concerned, you could have written:

```
let distance (p1:float*float)
             (p2:float*float) : float =
  let square x = x *. x in
  let (x1,y1) = p1 in
  let (x2,y2) = p2 in
  sqrt (square (x2 -. x1) +. square (y2 -. y1))
```

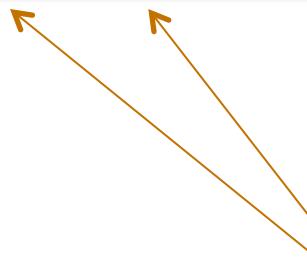
- Since the types are equal, you can *substitute* the definition for the name wherever you want
  - we have not added any new data structures

# **DATA TYPES**

# Data types

- OCaml provides a general mechanism called a **data type** for defining new data structures that consist of many alternatives

```
type my_bool = Tru | Fal
```



a **value** with type **my\_bool**  
is one of two things:

- **Tru**, or
- **Fal**

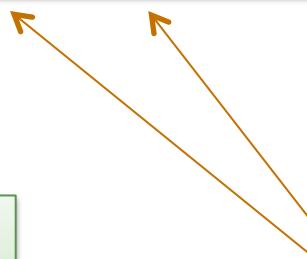
read the "**|**" as "or"

# Data types

- OCaml provides a general mechanism called a **data type** for defining new data structures that consist of many alternatives

```
type my_bool = Tru | Fal
```

Tru and Fal are called  
"constructors"



a **value** with type **my\_bool**  
is one of two things:

- **Tru**, or
- **Fal**

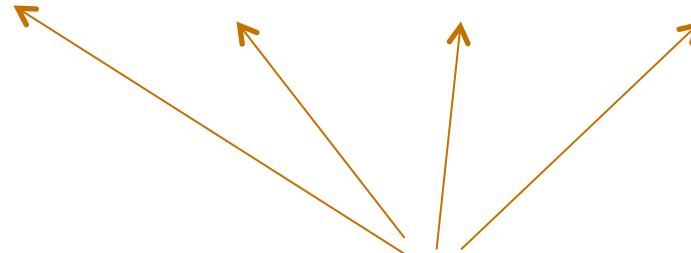
read the " | " as "or"

# Data types

- OCaml provides a general mechanism called a **data type** for defining new data structures that consist of many alternatives

```
type my_bool = Tru | Fal
```

```
type color = Blue | Yellow | Green | Red
```



there's no need to stop  
at 2 cases; define as many  
alternatives as you want

# Data types

- OCaml provides a general mechanism called a **data type** for defining new data structures that consist of many alternatives

```
type my_bool = Tru | Fal
```

```
type color = Blue | Yellow | Green | Red
```

- Creating values:

```
let b1 : my_bool = Tru  
let b2 : my_bool = Fal  
let c1 : color = Yellow  
let c2 : color = Red
```

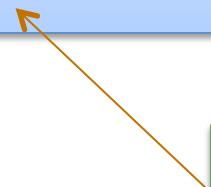
use constructors to create values

# Data types

```
type color = Blue | Yellow | Green | Red  
  
let c1 : color = Yellow  
let c2 : color = Red
```

- Using data type values:

```
let print_color (c:color) : unit =  
  match c with  
  | Blue ->  
  | Yellow ->  
  | Green ->  
  | Red ->
```



use pattern matching to determine which color you have; act accordingly

# Data types

```
type color = Blue | Yellow | Green | Red

let c1 : color = Yellow
let c2 : color = Red
```

- Using data type values:

```
let print_color (c:color) : unit =
  match c with
  | Blue -> print_string "blue"
  | Yellow -> print_string "yellow"
  | Green -> print_string "green"
  | Red -> print_string "red"
```

# Data types

```
type color = Blue | Yellow | Green | Red

let c1 : color = Yellow
let c2 : color = Red
```

- Using data type values:

```
let print_color (c:color) : unit =
  match c with
  | Blue -> print_string "blue"
  | Yellow -> print_string "yellow"
  | Green -> print_string "green"
  | Red -> print_string "red"
```

Why not just use strings to represent colors instead of defining a new type?

# Data types

```
type color = Blue | Yellow | Green | Red
```

oops!:

```
let print_color (c:color) : unit =
  match c with
  | Blue -> print_string "blue"
  | Yellow -> print_string "yellow"
  | Red -> print_string "red"
```



Warning 8: this pattern-matching is not exhaustive.  
Here is an example of a value that is not matched:  
Green

# Data types

```
type color = Blue | Yellow | Green | Red
```

oops!:

```
let print_color (c:color) : unit =
  match c with
  | Blue -> print_string "blue"
  | Yellow -> print_string "yellow"
  | Red -> print_string "red"
```



Warning 8: this pattern-matching is not exhaustive.  
Here is an example of a value that is not matched:  
Green

OCaml's datatype mechanism allow you to create types  
that contain *precisely* the values you want!

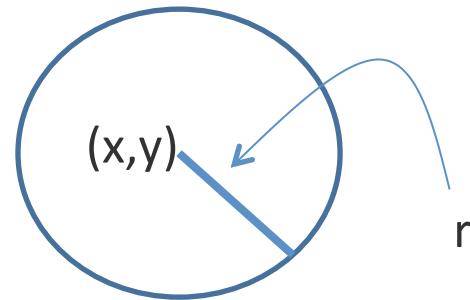
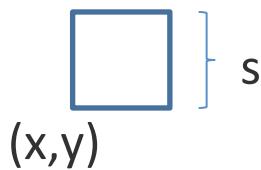
# Data Types Can Carry Additional Values

- Data types are more than just enumerations of constants:

```
type point = float * float

type simple_shape =
    Circle of point * float
  | Square of point * float
```

- Read as: a **simple\_shape** is either:
  - a **Circle**, which contains a **pair** of a **point** and **float**, or
  - a **Square**, which contains a **pair** of a **point** and **float**



# Data Types Can Carry Additional Values

- Data types are more than just enumerations of constants:

```
type point = float * float

type simple_shape =
  Circle of point * float
| Square of point * float

let origin : point = (0.0, 0.0)

let circ1  : simple_shape = Circle (origin, 1.0)
let circ2  : simple_shape = Circle ((1.0, 1.0), 5.0)
let square : simple_shape = Square (origin, 2.3)
```

# Data Types Can Carry Additional Values

- Data types are more than just enumerations of constants:

```
type point = float * float

type simple_shape =
  Circle of point * float
| Square of point * float

let simple_area (s:simple_shape) : float =
  match s with
  | Circle (_, radius) -> 3.14 *. radius *. radius
  | Square (_, side) -> side *. side
```

# Compare

- Data types are more than just enumerations of constants:

```
type point = float * float

type simple_shape =
  Circle of point * float
| Square of point * float

let simple_area (s:simple_shape) : float =
  match s with
  | Circle (_, radius) -> 3.14 *. radius *. radius
  | Square (_, side) -> side *. side
```

```
type my_shape = point * float

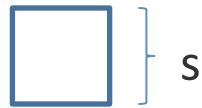
let simple_area (s:my_shape) : float =
  (3.14 *. radius *. radius) ?? or ?? (side *. side)
```

# More General Shapes

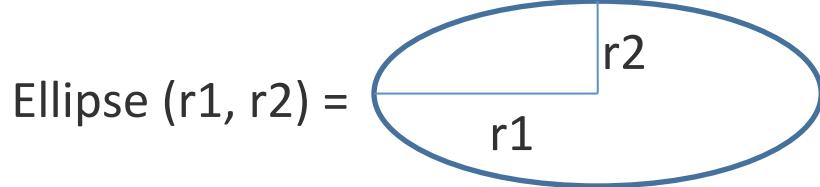
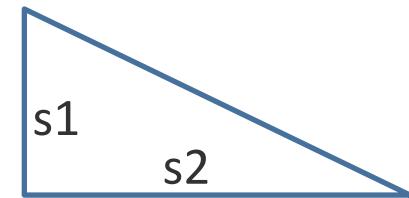
```
type point = float * float

type shape =
  Square of float
  | Ellipse of float * float
  | RtTriangle of float * float
  | Polygon of point list
```

Square s =

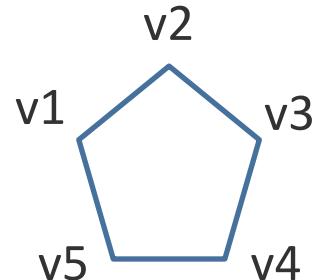


RtTriangle (s1, s2) =



Ellipse (r1, r2) =

Polygon [v1; ...; v5] =



# More General Shapes

```
type point = float * float
type radius = float
type side = float
```

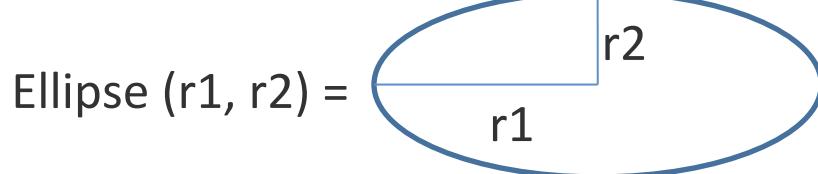
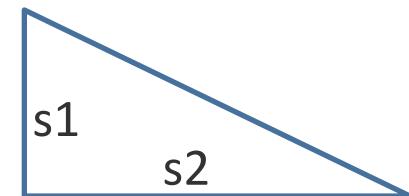
```
type shape =
  Square of side
  | Ellipse of radius * radius
  | RtTriangle of side * side
  | Polygon of point list
```

Type abbreviations can aid readability

Square s =

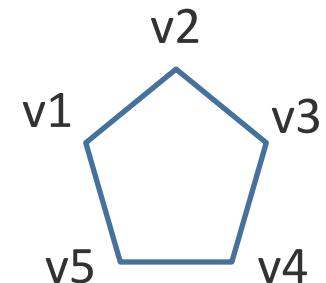


RtTriangle (s1, s2) =



Ellipse (r1, r2) =

RtTriangle [v1; ...; v5] =



# More General Shapes

```
type point = float * float
type radius = float
type side = float

type shape =
  Square of side
  | Ellipse of radius * radius
  | RtTriangle of side * side
  | Polygon of point list
```

```
let sq   : shape = Square 17.0
let ell  : shape = Ellipse (1.0, 2.0)
let rt   : shape = RtTriangle (1.0, 1.0)
let poly : shape = Polygon [(0., 0.); (1., 0.); (0.; 1.)]
```

Square builds a shape  
from a single side

RtTriangle builds a shape  
from a pair of sides

they are all shapes;  
they are constructed in  
different ways

Polygon builds a shape  
from a list of points  
(where each point is itself a pair)

# More General Shapes

```
type point = float * float
type radius = float
type side = float

type shape =
    Square of side
  | Ellipse of radius * radius
  | RtTriangle of side * side
  | Polygon of point list
```

a data type also defines  
a pattern for matching

```
let area (s : shape) : float =
  match s with
  | Square s ->
  | Ellipse (r1, r2)->
  | RtTriangle (s1, s2) ->
  | Polygon ps ->
```

# More General Shapes

```
type point = float * float
type radius = float
type side = float

type shape =
  Square of side
  | Ellipse of radius * radius
  | RtTriangle of side * side
  | Polygon of point list
```

a data type also defines  
a pattern for matching

```
let area (s : shape) : float =
  match s with
  | Square s -> 
  | Ellipse (r1, r2)->
  | RtTriangle (s1, s2) ->
  | Polygon ps ->
```

**Square** carries a value  
with type **float** so **s** is  
a pattern for float values

**RtTriangle** carries a value  
with type **float \* float**  
so **(s1, s2)** is a pattern  
for that type

# More General Shapes

```
type point = float * float
type radius = float
type side = float

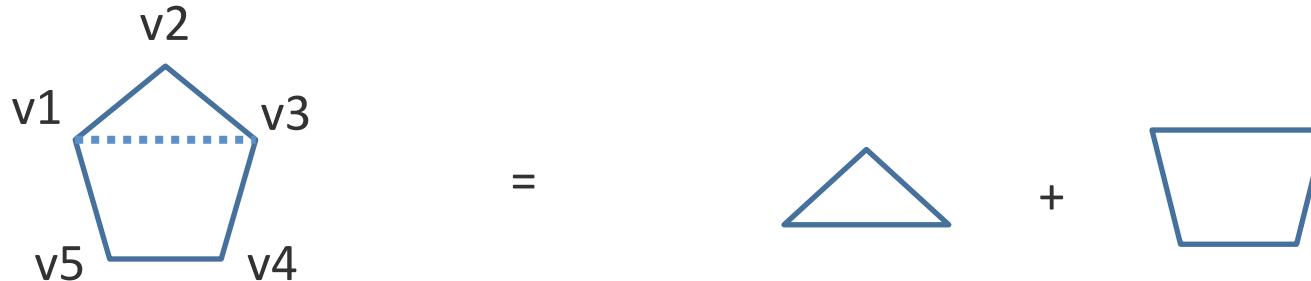
type shape =
  Square of side
  | Ellipse of radius * radius
  | RtTriangle of side * side
  | Polygon of point list
```

a data type also defines  
a pattern for matching

```
let area (s : shape) : float =
  match s with
  | Square s -> s *. s
  | Ellipse (r1, r2)-> pi *. r1 *. r2
  | RtTriangle (s1, s2) -> s1 *. s2 /. 2.
  | Polygon ps -> ???
```

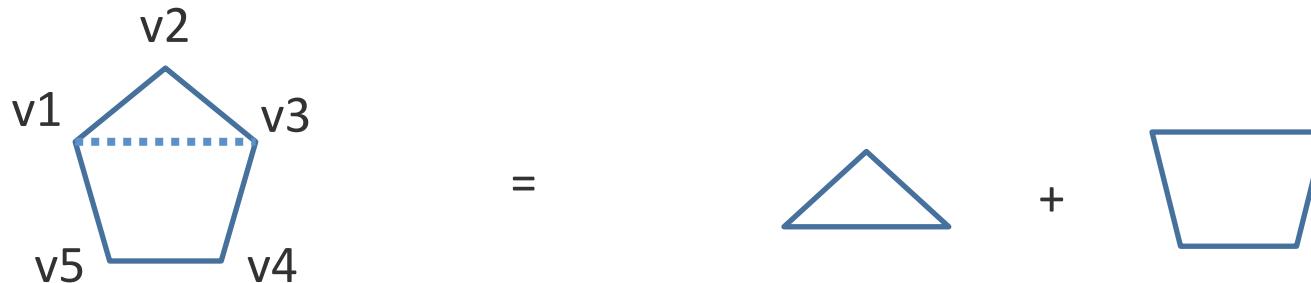
# Computing Area

- How do we compute polygon area?
- For convex polygons:
  - Case: the polygon has fewer than 3 points:
    - it has 0 area! (it is a line or a point or nothing at all)
  - Case: the polygon has 3 or more points:
    - Compute the area of the triangle formed by the first 3 vertices
    - Delete the second vertex to form a new polygon
    - Sum the area of the triangle and the new polygon



# Computing Area

- How do we compute polygon area?
- For convex polygons:
  - Case: the polygon has fewer than 3 points:
    - it has 0 area! (it is a line or a point or nothing at all)
  - Case: the polygon has 3 or more points:
    - Compute the area of the triangle formed by the first 3 vertices
    - Delete the second vertex to form a new polygon
    - Sum the area of the triangle and the new polygon
- Note: This is a beautiful **inductive algorithm**:
  - the area of a polygon with **n** points is computed in terms of a smaller polygon with only **n-1** points!

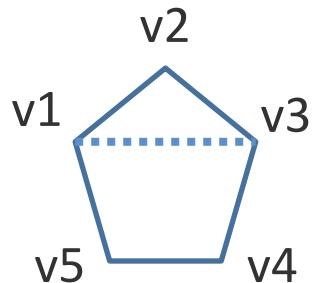


# Computing Area

```
let area (s : shape) : float =
  match s with
  | Square s -> s *. s
  | Ellipse (r1, r2)-> r1 *. r2
  | RtTriangle (s1, s2) -> s1 *. s2 /. 2.
  | Polygon ps -> poly_area ps
```

This pattern says the list has at least 3 items

```
let poly_area (ps : point list) : float =
  match ps with
  | p1 :: p2 :: p3 :: tail ->
    tri_area p1 p2 p3 +. poly_area (p1::p3::tail)
  | _ -> 0.
```



=



# Computing Area

```
let tri_area (p1:point) (p2:point) (p3:point) : float =
  let a = distance p1 p2 in
  let b = distance p2 p3 in
  let c = distance p3 p1 in
  let s = 0.5 *. (a +. b +. c) in
  sqrt (s *. (s -. a) *. (s -. b) *. (s -. c))
```

```
let rec poly_area (ps : point list) : float =
  match ps with
  | p1 :: p2 :: p3 :: tail ->
    tri_area p1 p2 p3 +. poly_area (p1::p3::tail)
  | _ -> 0.
```

```
let area (s : shape) : float =
  match s with
  | Square s -> s *. s
  | Ellipse (r1, r2) -> pi *. r1 *. r2
  | RtTriangle (s1, s2) -> s1 *. s2 /. 2.
  | Polygon ps -> poly_area ps
```

# **INDUCTIVE DATA TYPES**

# Inductive data types

- We can use data types to define inductive data
- A binary tree is:
  - a **Leaf** containing no data
  - a **Node** containing a **key**, a **value**, a left **subtree** and a right **subtree**

# Inductive data types

- We can use data types to define inductive data
- A binary tree is:
  - a **Leaf** containing no data
  - a **Node** containing a **key**, a **value**, a left **subtree** and a right **subtree**

```
type key = string
type value = int

type tree =
  Leaf
  | Node of key * value * tree * tree
```

# Inductive data types

```
type key = int
type value = string

type tree =
  Leaf
  | Node of key * value * tree * tree
```

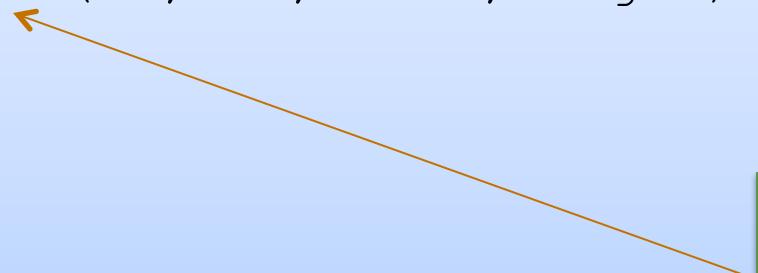
```
let rec insert (t:tree) (k:key) (v:value) : tree =
```

# Inductive data types

```
type key = int
type value = string

type tree =
  Leaf
  | Node of key * value * tree * tree
```

```
let rec insert (t:tree) (k:key) (v:value) : tree =
  match t with
  | Leaf ->
  | Node (k', v', left, right) ->
```



Again, the type definition  
specifies the cases you must  
consider

# Inductive data types

```
type key = int
type value = string

type tree =
  Leaf
| Node of key * value * tree * tree
```

```
let rec insert (t:tree) (k:key) (v:value) : tree =
  match t with
  | Leaf -> Node (k, v, Leaf, Leaf)
  | Node (k', v', left, right) ->
```

# Inductive data types

```
type key = int
type value = string

type tree =
  Leaf
  | Node of key * value * tree * tree
```

```
let rec insert (t:tree) (k:key) (v:value) : tree =
  match t with
  | Leaf -> Node (k, v, Leaf, Leaf)
  | Node (k', v', left, right) ->
    if k < k' then
      Node (k', v', insert left k v, right)
    else if k > k' then
      Node (k', v', left, insert right k v)
    else
      Node (k, v, left, right)
```

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type value = string

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    else if k > k' then
      Node (k', v', left, insert right k v)
    else
      Node (k, v, left, right)
```

# Inductive data types: Another Example

- Recall, we used the type "int" to represent natural numbers
  - but that was kind of broken: it also contained negative numbers
  - we had to use a dynamic test to guard entry to a function:

```
let double (n : int) : int =
  if n < 0 then
    raise (Failure "negative input!")
  else
    double_nat n
```

- it would be nice if there was a way to define the natural numbers **exactly**, and use OCaml's type system to guarantee no client ever attempts to double a negative number

# Inductive data types

- Recall, a natural number  $n$  is either:
  - zero, or
  - $m + 1$
- We use a data type to represent this definition exactly:

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# Inductive data types

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  - $m + 1$
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```
type nat = Zero | Succ of nat

let rec nat_to_int (n : nat) : int =
  match n with
    Zero -> 0
  | Succ n -> 1 + nat_to_int n
```

# Inductive data types

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  match n with
    Zero -> 0
  | Succ n -> 1 + nat_to_int n

let rec double_nat (n : nat) : nat =
  match n with
  | Zero -> Zero
  | Succ m -> Succ (Succ (double_nat m))
```

# Summary

- OCaml data types: a powerful mechanism for defining complex data structures:
  - They are precise
    - contain exactly the elements you want, not more elements
  - They are general
    - recursive, non-recursive (mutually recursive and polymorphic)
  - The type checker helps you detect errors
    - missing cases in your functions

# **PARAMETERIZED TYPE DEFINITIONS**

```
type ('key, 'val) tree =  
  Leaf  
  | Node of 'key * 'val * ('key, 'val) tree * ('key, 'val) tree
```

```
type 'a stree = (string, 'a) tree
```

```
type sitree = int stree
```

### General form:

definition:

```
type 'x f = body
```

use:

```
arg f
```

A more conventional notation  
would have been (but is not ML):

definition:

```
type f x = body
```

use:

```
f arg
```

# Take-home Message

- Think of parameterized types like functions:
  - a function that take a type as an argument
  - produces a type as a result
- Theoretical basis:
  - System F-omega
  - a typed lambda calculus with general type-level functions as well as value-level functions

# **TYPE DESIGN**

# Example Type Design

IBM developed GML (Generalize Markup Language) in 1969

- [http://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/IBM\\_Generalized\\_Markup\\_Language](http://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/IBM_Generalized_Markup_Language)
- Precursor to SGML, HTML and XML

:**h1**.Chapter 1: Introduction  
:**p**.GML supported hierarchical containers, such as  
:**ol**  
:**li**.Ordered lists (like this one),  
:**li**.Unordered lists, and  
:**li**.Definition lists  
:**eol**.  
as well as simple structures.  
:**p**.Markup Minimization (later generalized and formalized in SGML), allowed the end-tags to be omitted for the “h1” and “p” elements.

# Simplified GML

To process a GML document, an OCaml program would:

- **Read** a series of characters from a text file & **Parse** GML structure
- **Represent** the information content as an OCaml data structure
- **Analyze** or **transform** the data structure
- **Print/Store/Communicate** results

We will focus on how to *represent* and *transform* the information content of a GML document.

# Example Type Design

- A **GML document** consists of:
  - a list of **elements**
- An **element** is either:
  - a **word** or **markup** applied to an element
- **Markup** is either:
  - **italicize**, **bold**, or a **font name**

# Example Type Design

- A **GML document** consists of:
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- An **element** is either:
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- **Markup** is either:
  - **italicize**, **bold**, or a **font name**

```
type markup = Ital | Bold | Font of string
```

```
type elt =  
    Words of string list  
  | Formatted of markup * elt
```

```
type doc = elt list
```

# Example Data

```
type markup = Ital | Bold | Font of string

type elt =
  Words of string list
  | Formatted of markup * elt

type doc = elt list
```

```
let d = [ Formatted (Bold,
                      Formatted (Font "Arial",
                                  Words ["Chapter"; "One"]));
          Words ["It"; "was"; "a"; "dark";
                  "&"; "stormy"; "night."; "A"];
          Formatted (Ital, Words ["shot"]);
          Words ["rang"; "out."] ];;
```

# Challenge

- Change all of the “**Arial**” fonts in a document to “**Courier**”.
- Of course, when we program functionally, we implement *change* via a function that
  - receives one data structure as input
  - builds a new (different) data structure as an output

# Challenge

- Change all of the “Arial” fonts in a document to “Courier”.

```
type markup = Ital | Bold | Font of string

type elt =
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| Formatted of markup * elt

type doc = elt list
```

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- Change all of the “Arial” fonts in a **document** to “Courier”.

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type markup = Ital | Bold | Font of string

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- Technique: approach the problem top down, work on **doc** first:

```
let rec chfonts (elts:doc) : doc =
```

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- Technique: approach the problem top down, work on **doc** first:

```
let rec chfonts (elts:doc) : doc =
  match elts with
  | [] ->
  | hd::tl ->
```

# Challenge

- Change all of the “Arial” fonts in a document to “Courier”.

```
type markup = Ital | Bold | Font of string

type elt =
  Words of string list
  | Formatted of markup * elt

type doc = elt list
```

- Technique: approach the problem top down, work on **doc** first:

```
let rec chfonts (elts:doc) : doc =
  match elts with
  | [] -> []
  | hd::tl -> (chfont hd)::(chfonts tl)
```

# Changing fonts in an element

- Change all of the “Arial” fonts in a document to “Courier”.

```
type markup = Ital | Bold | Font of string

type elt =
  Words of string list
| Formatted of markup * elt

type doc = elt list
```

- Next work on changing the font of an element:

```
let rec chfont (e:elt) : elt =
```

# Changing fonts in an element

- Change all of the “Arial” fonts in a document to “Courier”.

```
type markup = Ital | Bold | Font of string

type elt =
  Words of string list
| Formatted of markup * elt

type doc = elt list
```

- Next work on changing the font of an element:

```
let rec chfont (e:elt) : elt =
  match e with
  | Words ws ->
  | Formatted(m,e) ->
```

# Changing fonts in an element

- Change all of the “Arial” fonts in a document to “Courier”.

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type markup = Ital | Bold | Font of string

type elt =
  Words of string list
| Formatted of markup * elt

type doc = elt list
```

- Next work on changing the font of an element:

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let rec chfont (e:elt) : elt =
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  | Words ws -> Words ws
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```

# Changing fonts in an element

- Change all of the “Arial” fonts in a document to “Courier”.

```
type markup = Ital | Bold | Font of string

type elt =
  Words of string list
  | Formatted of markup * elt

type doc = elt list
```

- Next work on changing the font of an element:

```
let rec chfont (e:elt) : elt =
  match e with
  | Words ws -> Words ws
  | Formatted(m,e) -> Formatted(chmarkup m, chfont e)
```

# Changing fonts in an element

- Change all of the “Arial” fonts in a document to “Courier”.

```
type markup = Ital | Bold | Font of string

type elt =
  Words of string list
| Formatted of markup * elt

type doc = elt list
```

- Next work on changing a **markup**:

```
let chmarkup (m:markup) : markup =
```

# Changing fonts in an element

- Change all of the “Arial” fonts in a document to “Courier”.

```
type markup = Ital | Bold | Font of string

type elt =
  Words of string list
| Formatted of markup * elt

type doc = elt list
```

- Next work on changing a **markup**:

```
let chmarkup (m:markup) : markup =
  match m with
  | Font "Arial" -> Font "Courier"
  | _ -> m
```

# Summary: Changing fonts in an element

- Change all of the “Arial” fonts in a document to “Courier”
- Lesson: function structure follows type structure

```
let chmarkup (m:markup) : markup =
  match m with
  | Font "Arial" -> Font "Courier"
  | _ -> m

let rec chfont (e:elt) : elt =
  match e with
  | Words ws -> Words ws
  | Formatted(m,e) -> Formatted(chmarkup m, chfont e)

let rec chfonts (elts:doc) : doc =
  match elts with
  | [] -> []
  | hd::tl -> (chfont hd)::(chfonts tl)
```

# Poor Style

- Consider again our definition of markup and markup change:

```
type markup =
  Ital | Bold | Font of string

let chmarkup (m:markup) : markup =
  match m with
  | Font "Arial" -> Font "Courier"
  | _ -> m
```

# Poor Style

- What if we make a change:

```
type markup =
  Ital | Bold | Font of string | TTFont of string

let chmarkup (m:markup) : markup =
  match m with
  | Font "Arial" -> Font "Courier"
  | _ -> m
```



the underscore silently catches all possible alternatives

this may not be what we want -- perhaps there is an Arial TT font

it is better if we are alerted of all functions whose implementation may need to change

# Better Style

- Original code:

```
type markup =
  Ital | Bold | Font of string

let chmarkup (m:markup) : markup =
  match m with
  | Font "Arial" -> Font "Courier"
  | Ital | Bold -> m
```

# Better Style

- Updated code:

```
type markup =
  Ital | Bold | Font of string | TTFont of string

let chmarkup (m:markup) : markup =
  match m with
  | Font "Arial" -> Font "Courier"
  | Ital | Bold -> m
```

```
..match m with
  | Font "Arial" -> Font "Courier"
  | Ital | Bold -> m..
```

Warning 8: this pattern-matching is not exhaustive.  
Here is an example of a value that is not matched:  
TTFont \_

# Better Style

- Updated code, fixed:

```
type markup =
  Ital | Bold | Font of string | TTFont of string

let chmarkup (m:markup) : markup =
  match m with
  | Font "Arial" -> Font "Courier"
  | TTFont "Arial" -> TTFont "Courier"
  | Font s -> Font s
  | TTFont s -> TTFont s
  | Ital | Bold -> m
```

- **Lesson:** use the type checker where possible to help you maintain your code

## A couple of practice problems

- Write a function that gets rid of immediately redundant markup in a document.
  - `Formatted(Ital, Formatted(Ital,e))` can be simplified to `Formatted(Ital,e)`
  - write maps and folds over markups
- Design a datatype to describe bibliography entries for publications. Some publications are journal articles, others are books, and others are conference papers. Journals have a name, number and issue; books have an ISBN number; All of these entries should have a title and author.
  - design a sorting function
  - design maps and folds over your bibliography entries

# To Summarize

- Design recipe for writing OCaml code:
  - write down English specifications
    - try to break problem into obvious sub-problems
  - write down some sample test cases
  - write down the signature (types) for the code
  - use the signature to guide construction of the code:
    - tear apart inputs using pattern matching
      - make sure to cover all of the cases! (OCaml will tell you)
    - handle each case, building results using data constructor
      - this is where human intelligence comes into play
      - the “skeleton” given by types can almost be done automatically!
    - clean up your code
  - use your sample tests (and ideally others) to ensure correctness