

Polymorphic Variants, Labels

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Outline

Labeled & Optional arguments
Polymorphic Variants
Patterns

Labeled & Optional arguments

Labeled arguments
Optional arguments

Let's define a function that adds a prefix and a postfix to a string:

```
1: let delimit pre s post = pre ^ s ^ post
```

In the signature, it appears as:

```
1: val delimit : string -> string -> string -> string
2: (** [delimit pre s post ]adds a prefix
3:     and a postfix to a string [s] *)
```

The function type is ambiguous, it needs extra documentation in english.

Alternative definition using labels:

```
1 : let delimit ~pre s ~post = pre ^ s ^ post
```

In the signature, it appears as:

```
1 : val delimit  
2 :   : pre:string ->  
3 :   string ->  
4 :   post:string ->  
5 :   string
```

Problem solved !

Total application:

```
1 : delimit "<" "xx" ">" ;;
2 : delimit ~post: ">" "xx" ~pre: "<" ;;
3 : delimit ~pre: "<" "xx" ~post: ">" ;;
4 : delimit ~pre: "<" ~post: ">" "xx" ;;
5 : delimit "xx" ~pre: "<" ~post: ">" ;;
```

Labels can be omitted if all arguments are passed.

Labeled arguments can be put in any order, mixed with others.

Other arguments must be passed in declaration order.

Partial application:

```
1 : let prefix = delimit ~post: ""  
2 : let postfix = delimit ~pre: ""  
3 : let wrap = delimit ~pre: "(" ~post: ")"
```

Labels are required for partial application.

Bonus: `~pre:pre` simplifies to `~pre`.

```
1 : let pre = "<" and post = ">" in  
2 : delimit ~pre ~post "-"
```

Let's define a function that concatenates the strings in a list, with a separator:

```
1 : let rec cat sep = function
2 :   | [] -> ""
3 :   | [ single ] -> single
4 :   | word :: words -> word ^ sep ^ cat sep words
```

Nine out of ten times, we end up writing: `cat "" strings`

We could have written:

```
1: let cat
2:   : ?sep:string -> string list -> string list
3:   = fun ?sep strs ->
4:     let rec cat strs = match strs, sep with
5:     | [], _ -> ""
6:     | [ single ], _ -> single
7:     | word :: words, Some sep -> word ^ sep ^ cat words
8:     | word :: words, None -> word ^ cat words in
9:     cat strs
```

The argument `sep` has `string option` type.

- When passed, with `cat ~sep:"" words`, it is `Some ""`.
- When not passed, with `cat words`, it is `None`.

Or alternatively:

```
1 : let cat ?sep strs = match strs, sep with
2 :   | [], _ -> ""
3 :   | [ single ], _ -> single
4 :   | word :: words, Some s -> word ^ s ^ cat ?sep words
5 :   | word :: words, None -> word ^ cat ?sep words
```

When possible, default values can be defined, to get rid of `option` types.

```
1 : let rec cat ?(sep = "") = function
2 :   | [] -> ""
3 :   | [ single ] -> single
4 :   | word :: words -> word ^ sep ^ cat ~sep words
```

Syntax:

- `~arg:val` passes an `'a` value in `var` to an optional argument `?arg:'a`.
- `?arg:val` optionally passes an `'a option` value to an argument `?arg:'a`.
- `~pre:pre` simplifies to `~arg`.
- `?arg:arg` simplifies to `?arg`.

End of application:

- Application starts once a non optional, non labeled argument is passed.
- Functions must have a non optional arguments after the optional ones.
- A placeholder `()` can be used.

Example: `let translate ?x ?y ?z () = (* ... *)`.

The body is executed once the `()` is passed.

Polymorphic Variants

Sum types with inferred definition

Basic use case: introduce constructors without type definition.

```
1 : let arrow
2 :   : int -> [ `LEFT | `RIGHT | `BOTH ] -> string
3 :   = fun len head ->
4 :     match head with
5 :     | `LEFT -> "<" ^ String.make len '-'
6 :     | `RIGHT -> String.make len '-' ^ ">"
7 :     | `BOTH -> "<" ^ String.make len '-' ^ ">"
```

Syntax:

- Constructors prefixed with a bqckquote ``constructor``.
- Type alias: `[`constructor of type | `constructor | ...]`

Constructor sharing

Two polymorphic variant types can define the same constructor.

```
1: let arrow
2:   : int -> [ `LEFT | `RIGHT | `BOTH ] -> string
3:   = fun len head ->
4:     match head with
5:     | `LEFT -> "<" ^ String.make len '-'
6:     | `RIGHT -> String.make len '-' ^ ">"
7:     | `BOTH -> "<" ^ String.make len '-' ^ ">"
8: let parse_arrow_direction
9:   : char -> [ `LEFT | `RIGHT | `KNEE ]
10:  = function
11:    | '<' -> `LEFT | '>' -> `RIGHT
12:    | _ -> `KNEE
13: let arrow_from_direction =
14:   match parse_arrow_direction '>' with
15:   | (`LEFT | `RIGHT) as dir -> arrow 20 dir
16:   | `KNEE -> failwith "in_the_knee"
```

The dir value is considered of both variant types.

Intuitively, a polymorphic variant constructor:

- Can be seen as a singleton type.
 'U is the only value of type $[\text{'U}]$.
- Can be included in bigger polymorphic variant types.
- $[\text{'U} \mid \text{'V}]$ is the union of singletons $[\text{'U}]$ and $[\text{'V}]$,

This generalizes to a partial order (subtyping relation) order on variant types.

- $[\text{'U}]$ is included in $[\text{'U} \mid \text{'V}]$;
- $[\text{'U} \mid \text{'V}]$ is included in $[\text{'U} \mid \text{'V} \mid \text{'W}]$;
- $[\text{'U} \mid \text{'V}]$ and $[\text{'V} \mid \text{'W}]$ are not comparable; etc.

As with object, this is [structural subtyping](#).

- Polymorphic variant types do not need names.
- Their type is their structure, not their name.

The type system handles these subtyping relations through **row variables**, as with objects.

In objects, the `..` only meant **and possibly other method**.

For polymorphic variant types, more notations are available:

- `[`U | `V | `W]`
Reads: a type whose constructors are ``U`, ``V` and ``W`.
- `[> `U | `V | `W]`
Reads: at least ``U`, ``V` and ``W`.
- `[< `U | `V | `W]`
Reads: at most ``U`, ``V` and ``W`.
- `[< `U | `V | `W > `U | `V |]`
Reads: ``U`, ``V` and optionally ``W`.

Intuition:

- The form `[< 'U | 'V | 'W]` is used for expected values

Exemple: function argument

```
1 : let f : [< 'U | 'V | 'W ] list -> unit = fun l ->
2 :   List.iter (function 'U -> () | 'V -> () | 'W -> ()) l
3 : let () = f ([ 'U ; 'U ] : [ 'U ] list)
```

- The value passed may be always `'U`;
 - but it may never be `'Z`.
 - This is called a **covariant** position.
- The form `[> 'U | 'V | 'W]` is used for result values,
- Exemple: direct value definition

```
1 : let l : [> 'U | 'W ] = [ 'U ; 'W ]
2 : List.iter (function 'U -> () | 'V -> () | 'W -> ()) l
```

- Not treating a value `'U`, `'V` or `'Z` would cause an error;
- you can try and treat any other constructor safely.
- This is called a **contravariant** position.

OCaml always infers the most generic type, including row variables and their variance.

This is easily seen with pattern matching.

```
1 : let f = function `X -> `A | `Y -> `B
```

Is inferred to be of type: `[< `X | `Y] -> [> `A | `B]`.

If the type is too generic, one can refine it with:

- a (checked) annotation:

```
1 : let f : [ `X | `Y ] -> [ `A | `B ]  
2 :   = function `X -> `A | `Y -> `B
```

- an interface:

```
1 : module M  
2 :   : sig val f : [ `X ] -> [ `A | `B ] end  
3 :   = struct let f = function `X -> `A | `Y -> `B end
```

For instance if ``Y` is reserved for module internal use.

- or a coercion:

```
1 : let u = ( `U :> [ `U | `V ] )
```

Polymorphic variant types can be named:

```
1 : type xyz = [ `X | `Y | `Z ]
```

These names can be used:

- As any other type alias.
- Prefixed with a hash to open the type:
#xyz means [`> `X | `Y | `Z`]
- In other variant definitions.

```
1 : type wxyz = [ `W | xyz ]
```

- In match cases, as a shortcut for all constructors.

```
1 : match v with #xyz -> ()
```

Patterns

Suppose we have an expression type with operators over bools and ints.

```
1 : type expr =  
2 :   [ `And of bool * bool  
3 :   | `Not of bool  
4 :   | `Add of int * int  
5 :   | `Neg of int ]
```

We can write two dedicated evaluation functions for clarity:

```
1: let eval_bool_op = function
2:   | `And (x, y) -> x && y
3:   | `Not x -> not x
4: let eval_int_op = function
5:   | `Add (x, y) -> x + y
6:   | `Neg x -> - x
```

Whose types are:

```
1: val eval_bool_op
2:   : [< `And of bool * bool | `Not of bool ] -> bool
3: val eval_int_op
4:   : [< `Add of int * int | `Neg of int ] -> int
```

And then a join & split main evaluation function:

```
1 : let eval_op = function
2 :   | `And _ | `Not _ as bool_op ->
3 :     `Bool (eval_bool_op bool_op)
4 :   | `Add _ | `Neg _ as int_op ->
5 :     `Int (eval_int_op int_op)
```

Whose type is:

```
1 : val eval_op :
2 :   [< `And of bool * bool | `Not of bool
3 :   | `Add of int * int | `Neg of int ] ->
4 :   [> `Bool of bool | `Int of int ] = <fun>
```


Objects, Labels & Variants

Object oriented APIS can be made more appealing with this combination.
One of the goal is to simulate constructor overloading.

Example:

```
1: class hbox :  
2:   ?spacing:int ->  
3:   ?homogeneous:bool ->  
4:   ?vertical_align: [< `TOP | `BOTTOM | `CENTER | `FILL ]  
5:   #component list -> component
```

Phantom type parameters are ones that unused in the definition.
Using module abstraction, these variables can be forced.
This is used to encode human checked typing properties.

See [TyXML](#) that encodes XHTML well formedness this way.

Example: a library for classifying ints.

```
1: module Checked_string : sig
2:   type +'a t
3:   val positive : int -> [> 'P ] t
4:   val negative : int -> [> 'N ] t
5:   val (mod) : [< 'P ] t -> [< 'P ] t -> [> 'P ] t
6:   val abs : [< 'P | 'N ] t -> [> 'P ] t
7:   val to_int : [< 'P | 'N ] t
8: end= struct
9:   type 'a t = int
10:   let positive n =
11:     if n < 0 then invalid_arg "positive" else n
12:   let negative n =
13:     if n > 0 then invalid_arg "negative" else n
14:   let (mod) x n = x mod n
15:   let abs n = abs n
16:   let to_int n = n
17: end
```

Property: once an integer classified, all operations on it won't fail.

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