Lectures 2-3

Functional languages

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Literature

John Mitchell, Concepts in Programming Languages, Cambridge Univ Press, 2003 (Chapter 7)

Michael L. Scott, Programming Language Pragmatics (3rd ed.), Elsevier, 2009 (Chapters 10)

Outline

- History
- Values
- Lambda abstraction
- Functions
- Bindings, scope and lifetime
- Recursion
- Polymorphism
- Higher-order functions
- Type annotations
- Pattern-matching

Models of computation

- In 1930s many mathematicans were dealing with the formal notion of algorithm
 - Turing, Church, Kleene, Post, ...
 - Formalizations of »effective procedure«
- Functional models:
 - Lambda calculus, General recursive functions. Combinatory logic. Abstract rewriting systems
- Sequential models:
 - Finite state machines. Pushdown automata. Random access machines. Turing machines
- Concurrent models:
 - Cellular automaton. Kahn process networks. Petri nets.
 Synchronous Data Flow. Interaction nets. Actor model

Models of computation

- Church's thesis says that all such formalizations are equally powerful
- Foundations of imperative and functional languages
 - Turing machine
 - Lambda calculus

Functional languages

- In recent years functional languages have become increasingly more popular
 - Scientific as well as bussiness applications
- Functional languages have a great deal in common with imperative and object-oriented relatives
 - Names, scoping, expressons, types, recursion, ...
- We will learn common concepts of PL in different paradigms
 - Functions, parameter passing, blocks, ...
- Specific concepts of particular computation models will also be presented
 - Iteration, recursion, OO paradigm, ...

Values

- Atomic types
 - integer, real, boolean, string
 - Simple value is an instance of atomic type
- Functional languages use values
- Imperative languages use variables
- Ocaml includes atomic types:
 - Integer, float, char, string
 - Operations are bound to particular types
 - Derivation of expression type is easier

```
# 7;;
-: int = 7
# 5.3;;
-: float = 5.3
# 'c';;
-: char = 'c'
# "spring";;
-: string = "spring"
```

Lists

- Values of some type can be stored into lists
 - List is either empty □, or, it includes value of fixed type

#[1;2;3];;

-: int list = [1; 2; 3]

cdr

- List has a head and a tail:
 - 1 is head and [2; 3] a tail
 - $-[1; 2; 3] \equiv 1::[2; 3] \equiv 1::2::3::[]$

 - Operator :: corresponds to Lisp cons operator
- Two lists can be concatenated using operator append @
 - $-[1]@[2;3] \equiv [1;2;3]$
- Implementation details & other aspects
 - Lectures on (1) Imperative lang. and (2) Types

Products

- Products are defined as in mathematics
 - Interpretation of a product type is the Cartesian product of the interpretations of types that comprise product
 - Instances of products are pairs, triples, n-tuples

```
# ( 65 , 'B' , "ascii") ;;
- : int * char * string = 65, 'B', "ascii"
```

```
# ( 12 , "October") ;;
-: int * string = 12, "October"
```

```
# fst;;
-: 'a * 'b -> 'a = <fun>
# fst ( "October", 12 ) ;;
-: string = "October"
```

let statement

let
$$x=N$$
 in M \equiv $(\lambda x.M) N$

- $-\lambda$ -abstraction $\lambda x.M$ with a given argument N
- Used for binding the name and the value (later)
- Forms of let in Ocaml
 - Global [simultanous] declaration
 - Local [simultanous] declaration

```
let name_1 = expr_1
...
and name_n = expr_n
```

```
let name<sub>1</sub>= expr<sub>1</sub>
...
and name<sub>n</sub>= expr<sub>n</sub>
in expr
```

let statement

Examples

```
# let a = 3.0 and b = 4.0;;
val a : float = 3.
val b : float = 4.
# a;;
- : float = 3.
```

```
# let a = 3.0 and b = 4.0 in sqrt (a*.a +. b*.b);;
- : float = 5.
# a;;
Error: Unbound value a
```

```
# let c = (let a = 3.0 and b = 4.0 in sqrt (a*.a +. b*.b));; val c : float = 5.
```

Functions

- Function is lambda abstraction λx.M
 - x is a parameter and M is the body of a function
- Function expression is composed of a parameter x and a function body M
 - Function parameter is formal
- Example:
 - $-\lambda x.x*x$
 - $-(\lambda x.x*x)$ 5

```
# function x -> x*x ;;

- : int -> int = <fun>

# (function x -> x * x) 5 ;;

- : int = 25
```

Functions

Function body can be another function

```
# function x -> (function y -> 3*x + y) ;;
-: int -> int -> int = <fun>
```

The result of a function can again be a function

```
# (function x -> function y -> 3*x + y) 5 ;;
-: int -> int = <fun>
```

```
# (function x -> function y -> 3*x + y) 4 5 ;;
-: int = 17
```

Function

- The arity of function is number of its parameters
 - Functions have single parameters in OCaml

```
f(g, x) = g(x)

f_{curry} = \lambda g.\lambda x.g x
```

- This is called Curry form of function
- Single parameter can also be a tuple or a record
 - Curry form of the same function

```
# function (x,y) -> 3*x + y ;;
-: int * int -> int = <fun>
```

```
# function x -> function y -> 3*x + y;;
-: int -> int -> int = <fun>
# (function x -> function y -> 3*x + y) 4 5;;
-: int = 17
```

Function values

- Function is treated as a value
 - Using let statement to define binding between function and name
- Examples:

```
# let succ = function x -> x + 1;;
val succ : int -> int = <fun>
# succ 420;;
-: int = 421
# let g = function x -> function y -> 2*x + 3*y;;
val g : int -> int -> int = <fun>
# g 1 2;;
-: int = 8
```

Function values

Alternative syntax for function definition in Ocaml

```
let name p_1 p_2 \dots = <function-body>
let name = function p_1 -> \dots -> function p_n -> <function-body>
```

• Example:

- h1(y) = 2 + 3*y
- h2(x) = 2*x + 6

```
# let s x = x + 1;;
val s : int \rightarrow int = <fun>
# let g x y = 2*x + 3*y;;
val g : int \rightarrow int \rightarrow int = \langle fun \rangle
# let h1 = g1;
val h1 : int -> int = < fun>
# let h2 = function x -> g x 2 ;;
val h2 : int -> int = < fun>
# h2 2 ;;
-: int = 10
```

Bindings

- A binding is an association between two things, such as a name and the thing it names
- let statement binds value with its name

```
- \text{ let } x = M \text{ in } N \equiv (\lambda x.N)M
```

```
# let x = 3 ;;
-: int = 3
```

- Value can be defined globally or locally
 - Global definition is accessible in global context
 - Local definition is seen solely in local context

```
# let x = 3 in x * x ;;

-: int = 9

# (let x = 3 in x * x) + 1 ;;

-: int = 10
```

Blocks

- Most modern programming languages provide some kind of blocks
 - Block is program region that includes begin and end
 - Blocks have local variables
 - Global variable of some block is defined in some encompassing block
- Block are used in C, C++, Java, ML, ...
- Local definition of value can hide the definition of global value
 # let a = 1.0;;

```
{ int x = 2;
    { int y = 3;
      x = y+2;
    }
}
```

```
# let a = 1.0;;

-: float = 1

# let a = 3.0 and b = 4.0 in sqrt (a*.a +. b*.b) ;;

-: float = 5
```

Scope and lifetime

- Scope of value (or variable) is program area where it is defined
 - Value defined in some global block is defined in all subsuming blocks
- Lifetime of value (or variable) is duration of definition of value
- In many cases scope implies lifetime
 - Global declarations in C, C++ can appear locally

Static and dynamic scope

- Let some value be defined outside current block
 - Then variable is global relatively to local block
- Static scope
 - Variables are first searched in local block and then in structurally enclosing blocks
- Dynamic scope
 - Variables are searched by following function calls i.e.
 - blocks where function was invoked
- Static: C, Schema, ML, Pascal Dynamic: older Lisp, macros in C

```
# let x=1;;
val x : int = 1
# let g z = x+z;;
val g : int -> int = < fun>
# let f y = let x = y+1 in g (y*x);;
val f : int -> int = < fun>
# f(3);;
-: int = 13 (or 16)?
```

Recursion

- Definition of a symbol includes reference to itself
- Recursion was first introduced in Lisp
 - McCarthy advocated to use recursion in Algol
- Lambda abstractions do not have name
 - McCarthy suggestion for naming functions in Lisp

```
(label f (lambda (x) (cond ((eq x 0) 0) (true (+ x (f (-x 1)))))))
```

Later they simply declared function using define

```
(define f (lambda (x) (cond ((eq \times 0) 0) (true (+ \times (f (- \times 1)))))))
```

Linear recursion

- Recursion that evolves in one direction
 - Recursive call is at the end of function body
- Example: factorial

```
# let rec factorial n \rightarrow if n=1 then 1 else n * factorial (n-1);; val factorial : int \rightarrow int = \langle fun \rangle
```

- Tail recursion
 - Can be converted into iteration

```
fact 6 = 6 * fact 5

= 6 * (5 * fact 4)

= 6 * (5 * (4 * fact 3))

= 6 * (5 * (4 * (3 * fact 2)))

= 6 * (5 * (4 * (3 * (2 * fact 1))))

= 6 * (5 * (4 * (3 * (2 * 1))))

= 720
```

Examples

- Function sigma computes sum from 1 to n.
 - Linear recursion

```
# let rec sigma x = if x = 0 then 0 else x + sigma (x-1);;
val sigma : int -> int = <fun>
# sigma 10 ;;
- : int = 55
```

- Function even and odd return boolean value
 - Recursion in two cycles

```
# let rec even n = (n<>1) && ((n=0) or (odd (n-1)))
  and odd n = (n<>0) && ((n=1) or (even (n-1)));;
val even : int -> bool = <fun>
val odd : int -> bool = <fun>
# even 4 ;;
- : bool = true
# odd 5 ;;
- : bool = true
```

Functions on lists

- A list is a linear data structure
 - Grows in one direction
 - Linear recursion
 - Recursion guided by the structure
 - Stopping condition is the end of a list
 - Can be converted into iteration

Functions on lists

```
# let null I = (I = []);;
val null : 'a list -> bool = <fun>
# let rec size I =
if null I then 0
else 1 + (size (List.tl I)) ;;
val size : 'a list -> int = <fun>
# let rec reverse l =
if I=[] then []
else (reverse (List.tl I)) @ [(List.hd I)];;
val reverse : 'a list -> 'a list = <fun>
```

Functions on lists

```
# let rec member x = 1
if I=[] then false
else if x = List.hd(I) then true
else member x (List.tl I);;
val member: 'a -> 'a list -> bool = <fun>
# member 3 [2;3;1];;
-: bool = true
# let rec inter(xs, ys) =
if xs=[] then []
else let x = List.hd xs
     in if (member x ys) then x :: inter(List.tl xs, ys)
        else inter(List.tl xs, ys);;
val inter: 'a list * 'a list -> 'a list = <fun>
# inter ([1;2;3],[4;2]);;
-: int list = [2]
```

Polymorphism

- Polymorphism (Greek, »many shapes«)
- Parametric polymorphism
 - Function can have »many shapes«
 - Types of parameters are variables
- Type variables
 - Variable that stands for any type
 - 'a, 'b, 'c, ...
- A form of genericity

```
# let make_pair a b = (a,b);;
val make_pair : 'a -> 'b -> 'a * 'b = <fun>
# let p = make_pair "paper" 451;;
val p : string * int = "paper", 451
# let a = make_pair 'B' 65;;
val a : char * int = 'B', 65
# fst p;;
- : string = "paper"
# fst a ;;
- : char = 'B'
```

Examples: Polymorphic functions on lists

```
# let rec member x = 1
if I=[] then false
else if x = List.hd(I) then true
else member x (List.tl I);;
val member: 'a -> 'a list -> bool = <fun>
# member 3 [2;3;1];;
-: bool = true
# let rec append | 1 | 2 =
if null 11 then 12
else (List.hd l1)::append (List.tl l1) l2 ;;
val append : 'a list -> 'a list -> 'a list = <fun>
# append [1;2] [3;4];;
-: int list = [1; 2; 3; 4]
```

Examples

let app = function $f \rightarrow function x \rightarrow f x$;; val app : ('a -> 'b) -> 'a -> 'b = <fun>

- Function application
 - Any function f of type 'a->'b can be passed as parameter
- Function composition
 - Any functions f and g of type'a->'b and 'c->'a can be passed as parameters

```
# app odd 2;;
- : bool = false
# let id x = x ;;
val id : 'a -> 'a = <fun>
# app id 1 ;;
- : int = 1
```

```
# let compose f g x = f (g x) ;;
val compose : ('a -> 'b) -> ('c -> 'a) -> 'c -> 'b = <fun>
# let add1 x = x+1 and mul5 x = x*5 in compose mul5 add1 9 ;;
- : int = 50
```

Currying

- Function with more than one argument can be represented by sequence of functions with one argument
 - This procedure is called Currying
- Example

```
# let add1 x y = x + y;;
val add1 : int -> int -> int = <fun>
# add1 3 4;;
- : int = 7
```

```
# let add2 (x,y) = x + y;;
val add2 : int*int -> int = <fun>
# add2 (3,4);;
- : int = 7
```

```
# let curry f = function x -> function y -> f (x,y);;
val curry : ('a * 'b -> 'c) -> 'a -> 'b -> 'c = <fun>
# let uncurry f = function (x,y) -> f x y;;
val uncurry : ('a -> 'b -> 'c) -> 'a * 'b -> 'c = <fun>
# uncurry add1;;
- : int * int -> int = <fun>
# curry(uncurry add1);;
- : int -> int -> int = <fun>
```

- Higher-order function either takes function as the parameter, or, returns function.
 - We have already seen many examples
- Function compose is an example of higher-order function

```
# let compose f g x = f (g x) ;;
val compose : ('a -> 'b) -> ('c -> 'a) -> 'c -> 'b = <fun>
```

- The result is compositum of two functions stated as parameters compose
 - Result is again a function

Function map is an example of higher-order function

```
# let rec map f l =
if null I then []
else f(List.hd I)::(map f (List.tl I));;
val map : ('a -> 'b) -> 'a list -> 'b list = <fun>
# let square x = string_of_int (x*x) ;;
val square : int -> string = <fun>
# map square [1; 2; 3; 4] ;;
- : string list = ["1"; "4"; "9"; "16"]
```

- Higher-order functions can be useful as programming tool
 - Very common use recently!

- Function for_all is an example of higher-order function
 - Universal quantification for a property expressed as boolean function f on elements of list I

```
# let rec for_all f l =
if null l then true
else (f (List.hd l)) && for_all f (List.tl l);;
val for_all : ('a -> bool) -> 'a list -> bool = <fun>
# for_all (function n -> n<>0) [-3; -2; -1; 1; 2; 3] ;;
- : bool = true
# for_all (function n -> n<>0) [-3; -2; 0; 1; 2; 3] ;;
- : bool = false
```

Folding a list

```
= fold_left f a [e<sub>1</sub>; e<sub>2</sub>; ...; e<sub>n</sub>] = f (... (f (f a e<sub>1</sub>) e<sub>2</sub>) ... e<sub>n</sub>).
```

```
# let rec fold_left f a l =
    if null l then a
    else fold_left f ( f a (List.hd l)) (List.tl l) ;;
val fold_left : ('a -> 'b -> 'a) -> 'a -> 'b list -> 'a = <fun>
```

```
# let sum_list = fold_left (+) 0;;
val sum_list : int list -> int = <fun>
# sum_list [2;4;7];;
-: int = 13
# let concat_list = fold_left (^) "";;
val concat_list : string list -> string = <fun>
# concat_list ["Hello "; "world"; "!"];;
-: string = "Hello world!"
```

Function constructs function

```
# let rec iterate n f = if n = 0 then (function x \rightarrow x) else compose f (iterate (n-1) f) ;; val iterate : int -> ('a -> 'a) -> 'a -> 'a = <fun>
```

Construction of function power

```
# let rec power i n =
let i_times = ( * ) i in
iterate n i_times 1 ;;
val power : int -> int -> int = <fun>
# power 2 8 ;;
- : int = 256
```

Pattern matching

- A special feature of languages of ML family
 - Haskell, Erlang, SML, ...
 - Close to Prolog unification
 - Very complex case statement
- Declarative language construct !
 - Logic based languages?
 - Not functional and not imperative?
- Allows simple access to the components of complex data structures
- Functions can be defined by cases
 - Pattern matching over an argument

Pattern matching

Patterns

- Structure comprised of tuples, records, unions and lists including constants (of predefined types) and variables
- Variables are »hooks« that catch the values
- The symbol _ is called the wildcard pattern: matches to any data (as in Prolog)
- The evaluation is parametrised by data:
 - when pattern in data is recognised, the corresponding expression is evaluated.

Syntax and usage

- Patterns in match must be of same type
- match <expression> with

 | <pattern_1> -> <expression_1>
 | <pattern_2> -> <expression_2>

 | <pattern_k> -> <expression_k>
- Pattern must be linear a variable can appear just once in a pattern
- Patterns in match are tested sequentially (!)
- The expression with the first match is evaluated
- List of patterns in match must be exhaustive every value must be matched with a pattern in the list
- First pipe (character | on the first line) is optional

Simple match:

```
# let imply v = match v with
  | (false,false) -> true
  | (false, true) -> true
  | (true, false) -> false
  | (true, true) -> true;;
val imply : bool * bool -> bool = <fun>
```

With variable:

With wildchard pattern:

Linearity and completeness

Every pattern must be linear:

```
let equal a b = match (a,b) with
  | (x,x) -> true
  |_ -> false;;
Error: Variable x is bound several times in this matching
# equal 1 2;;
Error: Unbound value equal
```

Every pattern must be exhaustive:

```
# let iszero x = match x with 0 -> true;;
Warning 8: this pattern-matching is not exhaustive.
Here is an example of a value that is not matched:
1
val iszero : int -> bool = <fun>
# iszero 0;;
- : bool = true
# iszero 10;;
Exception: "Match_failure //toplevel//:3:-34".
```

Combining patterns

Pattern matching is sequential:

- 1. 'A' is »Consonant«
- 'A' matched by »Vowel«

```
# let char discriminate c = match c with
  |'a' | 'e' | 'i' | 'o' | 'u' | 'y'
  | 'A'| 'E' | 'I' | 'O' | 'U' | 'Y' -> "Vowel"
  | 'a'..'z' | 'A'..'Z' -> "Consonant"
  | '0'..'9' -> "Digit"
  | -> "Other";;
val char discriminate : char -> string = <fun>
# val char discriminate 'A';;
-: string = "Vowel"
# val char discriminate 'z';;
-: string = "Consonant"
# val char discriminate '$';;
-: string = "Other"
```

Matching on arguments

- Pattern matching is used in an essential way for defining (unary) functions by cases.
- Syntax:

```
function
| <pattern_1> -> <expression_1>
....
| <pattern_k> -> <expression_k>
```

Indeed, the construction of function <x> -> <expression>,
is a definition by pattern matching using a single pattern

reduced to one variable.

```
# let f = function (x,y) \rightarrow 2*x + 3*y;;
val f : int * int -> int = <fun>
```

```
# let f(x,y) = 2*x + 3*y + 4;;
val f: int * int -> int = < fun>
```

```
# let rec sigma = function
0 -> 0
| x -> x + sigma (x-1);;
val sigma : int -> int = <fun>
# sigma 10;;
-: int = 55
```

Named patterns

 During pattern matching, it is sometimes useful to name part or all of the pattern. This is useful when one needs to take apart a value while still maintaining its integrity.

```
# let less_rat pr = match pr with
  | ((_,0),p2) -> p2
  | (p1,(_,0)) -> p1
  | (((n1,d1) as r1), ((n2,d2) as r2)) ->
     if (n1*d2) < (n2*d1) then r1 else r2;;
val min_rat : (int * int) * (int * int) -> int * int = <fun>
```

 As a result, the value matched by the named pattern can be returned.

Pattern guards

- Guard is a conditional expression applied immediately after the pattern is matched.
- Syntax:

```
match <expression> with
....
| <pattern_i> when <condition> -> <expression_i> ....
```

• Example:

```
# let eq_rat cr = match cr with
    ((_,0),(_,0)) -> true
| ((_,0),_) -> false
| (_,(_,0)) -> false
| ((n1,1), (n2,1)) when n1 = n2 -> true
| ((n1,d1), (n2,d2)) when ((n1 * d2) = (n2 * d1)) -> true
| _ -> false;;
val eq_rat : (int * int) * (int * int) -> bool = <fun>
```

Size of a list:

```
# let rec length = function
    |[] -> 0
    |_::tl -> 1 + length tl;;
val length : 'a list -> int = <fun>
# length [1;2;3;4;5];;
- : int = 5
```

Appending of two lists:

```
# let rec append = function
    |[], | -> |
    | hd::tl, | -> hd :: append (tl,l);;
val append : 'a list * 'a list -> 'a list = <fun>
# append ([1;2;3;4], [5;6;7]);;
- : int list = [1; 2; 3; 4; 5; 6; 7]
```

Membership test:

```
# let rec contains e lst = match lst with
    |[] -> false
    | hd::_ when e = hd -> true
    |_::tl -> contains e tl;;
val contains : 'a -> 'a list -> bool = <fun>
# contains 1 [1;2;3;4;5;6];;
- : bool = true
# contains 10 [1;2;3;4;5;6];;
- : bool = false
```

 Intersection of two lists (as sets):

 Union of two lists (as sets):

Type declaration

- Type is defined from simpler types using type constructors: *, |, list, array, ...
- Type definition in Ocaml
- Example:

```
# type int_pair = int*int;;
type int_pair = int * int
# let v:int_pair = (1,1);;
val v : int_pair = (1, 1)
```

```
type name = typedef;;

type name<sub>1</sub> = typedef<sub>1</sub>

and name<sub>2</sub> = typedef<sub>2</sub>

...

and name<sub>n</sub> = typedef<sub>n</sub>;;
```

```
typedef char byte;
typedef byte_ten bytes[10];
typedef struct {int m;} A;
typedef struct {int m;} B;
A x; B y;
x=y; /* incompatible types in assignment */
```

Parametrized types

- Type declarations can include type variables
- Type variable is a variable that can stand for arbitrary type
- Types that include variables are called parametrized types or also polymorphic types
- Parametrized type in Ocaml:

```
# type ('a,'b) pair = 'a*'b;;

type ('a, 'b) pair = 'a * 'b

# let v:(char,int) pair = ('a',1);;

val v: (char, int) pair = ('a', 1)
```

```
type 'a name = typedef ;;
type ('a<sub>1</sub> . . . 'a<sub>n</sub> ) name = typedef ;;
```

Products

- Products of types T₁*T₂*...*T_n
 - Denotation: Cartesian product
 of sets that correspond to types T₁T₂...T_n
 - $= I(T_1 * T_2 * ... * T_n) = I(T_1) \times I(T_2) \times ... \times I(T_n)$
- Examples in Ocaml:
- Operations
 - fst(), snd()
 - Pattern matching

Product: Ocaml examples

```
# type ('a,'b,'c) triple = 'a*'b*'c;;
type ('a, 'b, 'c) triple = 'a * 'b * 'c
# let t = 1,'1',"1";;
val t : int * char * string = (1, '1', "1")
# let t:(int,char,string) triple = 1,'1',"1";;
val t : (int, char, string) triple = (1, '1', "1")
```

```
# type 'param paired_with_integer = int * 'param ;;
type 'a paired_with_integer = int * 'a
# type specific_pair = float paired_with_integer ;;
type specific_pair = float paired_with_integer
# let x:specific_pair = (3, 3.14) ;;
val x : specific_pair = 3, 3.14
```

Lists

- Lists were introduced in chapter on Functional languages
- Functional and logic languages
 - Work via recursion and higher-order functions
 - In Lisp a program is a list; can extend itself at run time
 - Built-in polymorphic functions to manipulate arbitrary lists
- Lists in Lisp
 - Two pointers: First (car) and Rest (cdr)
 - Names are historical accidents (contents of address|decrement register)

- car cdr
- Lists are implemented in this way in Lisp
 - Also in Python, Prolog
- Lists in Lisp are heterogeneous (of different types)

Lists

- Lists in ML-family
 - Lists in ML are homogeneous (of the same type)
 - Chains of blocks including element and a pointer to the next block
 - Also Clu (Barbara Liskov, 1974), Haskell
- Lists can also be used in imperative programs
 - Implementation as an example
- Lists work best in a language with automatic garbage collection
 - many of the standard list operations tend to generate garbage

Lists

- /* Haskell */ $\{i \times i \mid i \in \{1, ..., 100\} \text{ } \Lambda \text{ } i \text{ 'mod' } 2 = 1\}$ /* Python */ [i*i for i in range(1, 100) if i % 2 == 1]
- List comprehensions
 - $-\{i * i \mid i \in \{1, ..., 100\} \land i \mod 2 = 1\}$
 - Haskell, Erlang, Python, and F#
- Higher-order functions in Ocaml
 - Iterators, aggregates, filters, selection, ...
 - Declarative programming?

```
val map : ('a -> 'b) -> 'a list -> 'b list
val fold_left : ('a -> 'b -> 'a) -> 'a -> 'b list -> 'a
val fold_right : ('a -> 'b -> 'b) -> 'a list -> 'b -> 'b
val for_all : ('a -> bool) -> 'a list -> bool
val exists : ('a -> bool) -> 'a list -> bool
val find : ('a -> bool) -> 'a list -> 'a
val filter : ('a -> bool) -> 'a list -> 'a list
...
```

Unions

- Type constructed by union
 - Make a new set by taking the union of existing sets
 - $= I(T_1|T_2|...|T_n) = I(T_1) \cup I(T_2) \cup ... \cup I(T_n)$
- Unions in Ocaml
- Operations:
 - Construction of instance
 - Pattern matching

```
type name = ...

| Name; ...

| Name; of t; ...

| Name; of t; * ...* t; ... ;;
```

```
# type coin = Heads | Tails;;
type coin = | Heads | Tails
# Tails;;
- : coin = Tails
```

Example: Tarot

```
# type suit = Spades | Hearts |
              Diamonds | Clubs ;;
# type card =
     King of suit
    | Queen of suit
    | Knight of suit
    | Knave of suit
    | Minor card of suit * int
    | Trump of int
    | Joker ;;
```

```
# King Spades ;;
- : card = King Spades
# Minor_card(Hearts, 10) ;;
- : card = Minor_card (Hearts, 10)
# Trump 21 ;;
- : card = Trump 21
```

Example: Tarot

```
# let rec interval a b = if a = b then [b] else a :: (interval (a+1) b) ;;
val interval : int -> int -> int list = <fun>
# let all cards s =
   let face cards = [ Knave s; Knight s; Queen s; King s ]
   and other cards = List.map (function n \rightarrow Minor card(s,n)) (interval 1 10)
   in face cards @ other cards ;;
val all cards : suit -> card list = <fun>
# all cards Hearts ;;
-: card list =
[Knave Hearts; Knight Hearts; Queen Hearts; King Hearts;
Minor card (Hearts, 1); Minor card (Hearts, 2); Minor card (Hearts, 3);
Minor card (Hearts, ...); ...]
```

Pattern matching on unions

```
# let string of suit = function
     Spades -> "spades"
    | Diamonds -> "diamonds"
    | Hearts -> "hearts"
    | Clubs -> "clubs";;
val string of suit : suit -> string = <fun>
# let string of card = function
     King c -> "king of "^ (string_of_suit c)
    | Queen c -> "queen of "^ (string of suit c)
    | Knave c -> "knave of "^ (string of suit c)
    | Knight c -> "knight of "^ (string_of_suit c)
    | Minor card (c, n) -> (string of int n) ^ "of "^(string of suit c)
    | Trump n -> (string of int n) ^ "of trumps"
    val string of card : card -> string = <fun>
```