

CS 320: Concepts of Programming Languages

Lecture 5: Lists, Lists, and Lists

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Today's Abstraction

2

- ▶ The most important data structure that OCaml provides is a *LIST*
- ▶ Today, we will learn all there's to know about lists
- ▶ As usual, we will study syntax, type system, and semantics of lists
- ▶ (you must be getting tired of this by now)
- ▶ (*but I will keep repeating this till my last lecture*)
- ▶ Note: for assignments, please create all files with dummy functions before running “*dune test*”

- ▶ Very much like the linked list data structure and **not vector**
- ▶ *Formal Syntax:*
 - ▶ **[]** for an empty list; also called “nil”
 - ▶ **$x :: l$** for “cons”-ing element **x** to the front of list **l**
 - ▶ **$[x_1; x_2; x_3; \dots; x_n]$** can also be used to define a fixed list

Some List Examples

4

'a list

```
let l1 = []
```

int list

```
let l2 = 1::l1
```

int list

```
let l3 = 2::3::l2
```

int list

```
let l4 = [1; 2; 3]
```

(* Are l3 and l4 equal? *)

Some List Examples

4

'a list

```
let l1 = []
```

int list

```
let l2 = 1::l1
```

int list

```
let l3 = 2::3::l2
```

int list

```
let l4 = [1; 2; 3]
```

(* Are l3 and l4 equal? *)

:: is right associative
So, this would be equivalent to
2::(3::l2)

Example: Generating a List

5

- Generate a list of first n natural numbers

```
int -> int list
let rec generate n =
  if n = 0
  then []
  else n::(generate (n-1))
(* generate 5 = [5; 4; 3; 2; 1] *)
```

```
int -> int list
let generate n =
  let rec gen_helper n k =
    if n = 0
    then []
    else k::(gen_helper (n-1) (k+1))
  in
  gen_helper n 1
(* generate 5 = [1; 2; 3; 4; 5] *)
```

Typing Rule for Lists

6

- ▶ $[]$ can have any type

$$\frac{}{\Gamma \vdash [] : \alpha \text{ list}}$$

- ▶ If x has type τ , then ℓ must have type $\tau \text{ list}$ and $x :: \ell$ has type $\tau \text{ list}$

$$\frac{\Gamma \vdash x : \tau \quad \Gamma \vdash \ell : \tau \text{ list}}{\Gamma \vdash (x :: \ell) : \tau \text{ list}}$$

- ▶ All elements of the list must have type τ , then $[e_1; e_2; \dots; e_n]$ has type $\tau \text{ list}$

$$\frac{\Gamma \vdash e_1 : \tau \quad \Gamma \vdash e_2 : \tau \quad \dots \quad \Gamma \vdash e_n : \tau}{\Gamma \vdash [e_1; e_2; \dots; e_n] : \tau \text{ list}}$$

Semantics Rule for Lists

7

$$\overline{[] \Downarrow []}$$

$$\frac{e \Downarrow v \quad \ell \Downarrow [v_1; v_2; \dots v_n]}{e :: \ell \Downarrow [v; v_1; v_2; \dots v_n]}$$

$$\frac{e_1 \Downarrow v_1 \quad e_2 \Downarrow v_2 \quad \dots \quad e_n \Downarrow v_n}{[e_1; e_2; \dots e_n] \Downarrow [v_1; v_2; \dots v_n]}$$

- ▶ **[]** is a value
- ▶ If **e** evaluates to **v**, and **ℓ** evaluates to **[v₁; v₂; ...; v_n]**, then **x :: ℓ** evaluates to **[v; v₁; v₂; ...; v_n]**
- ▶ If each element **e_i** evaluates to **v_i**, then the list evaluates to **[v₁; v₂; ...; v_n]**

Example of Semantics

$[2 + 5; 3 * 3; 4 - 10]$

Example of Semantics

$[2 + 5; 3 * 3; 4 - 10]$

$$\frac{e_1 \Downarrow v_1 \quad e_2 \Downarrow v_2 \quad \dots \quad e_n \Downarrow v_n}{[e_1; e_2; \dots e_n] \Downarrow [v_1; v_2; \dots v_n]}$$

Example of Semantics

$$[2 + 5; 3 * 3; 4 - 10] \Downarrow [7; 9; -6]$$

$$\frac{e_1 \Downarrow v_1 \quad e_2 \Downarrow v_2 \quad \dots \quad e_n \Downarrow v_n}{[e_1; e_2; \dots e_n] \Downarrow [v_1; v_2; \dots v_n]}$$

Example of Semantics

$$[2 + 5; 3 * 3; 4 - 10] \Downarrow [7; 9; -6]$$

$$\frac{e_1 \Downarrow v_1 \quad e_2 \Downarrow v_2 \quad \dots \quad e_n \Downarrow v_n}{[e_1; e_2; \dots e_n] \Downarrow [v_1; v_2; \dots v_n]}$$

Example of Semantics

8

$$2 + 5 \Downarrow 7$$

$$[2 + 5; 3 * 3; 4 - 10] \Downarrow [7; 9; -6]$$

$$\frac{e_1 \Downarrow v_1 \quad e_2 \Downarrow v_2 \quad \dots \quad e_n \Downarrow v_n}{[e_1; e_2; \dots e_n] \Downarrow [v_1; v_2; \dots v_n]}$$

Example of Semantics

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$$2 + 5 \Downarrow 7$$

$$3 * 3 \Downarrow 9$$

$$[2 + 5; 3 * 3; 4 - 10] \Downarrow [7; 9; -6]$$

$$\frac{e_1 \Downarrow v_1 \quad e_2 \Downarrow v_2 \quad \dots \quad e_n \Downarrow v_n}{[e_1; e_2; \dots e_n] \Downarrow [v_1; v_2; \dots v_n]}$$

Example of Semantics

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$$2 + 5 \Downarrow 7$$

$$3 * 3 \Downarrow 9$$

$$4 - 10 \Downarrow -6$$

$$[2 + 5; 3 * 3; 4 - 10] \Downarrow [7; 9; -6]$$

$$\frac{e_1 \Downarrow v_1 \quad e_2 \Downarrow v_2 \quad \dots \quad e_n \Downarrow v_n}{[e_1; e_2; \dots e_n] \Downarrow [v_1; v_2; \dots v_n]}$$

Example of Semantics

$$2 + 5 \Downarrow 7$$

$$3 * 3 \Downarrow 9$$

$$4 - 10 \Downarrow -6$$

$$[2 + 5; 3 * 3; 4 - 10] \Downarrow [7; 9; -6]$$

$$\frac{e_1 \Downarrow v_1 \quad e_2 \Downarrow v_2 \quad v = v_1 + v_2}{e_1 + e_2 \Downarrow v}$$

$$\frac{e_1 \Downarrow v_1 \quad e_2 \Downarrow v_2 \quad \dots \quad e_n \Downarrow v_n}{[e_1; e_2; \dots e_n] \Downarrow [v_1; v_2; \dots v_n]}$$

Example of Semantics

8

$$\frac{2 \Downarrow 2 \quad 5 \Downarrow 5 \quad 7 = 2 + 5}{2 + 5 \Downarrow 7}$$

$$3 * 3 \Downarrow 9$$

$$4 - 10 \Downarrow -6$$

$$[2 + 5; 3 * 3; 4 - 10] \Downarrow [7; 9; -6]$$

$$\frac{e_1 \Downarrow v_1 \quad e_2 \Downarrow v_2 \quad v = v_1 + v_2}{e_1 + e_2 \Downarrow v}$$

$$\frac{e_1 \Downarrow v_1 \quad e_2 \Downarrow v_2 \quad \dots \quad e_n \Downarrow v_n}{[e_1; e_2; \dots e_n] \Downarrow [v_1; v_2; \dots v_n]}$$

Example of Semantics

8

$$\frac{2 \Downarrow 2 \quad 5 \Downarrow 5 \quad 7 = 2 + 5}{2 + 5 \Downarrow 7}$$

$$3 * 3 \Downarrow 9$$

$$4 - 10 \Downarrow -6$$

$$[2 + 5; 3 * 3; 4 - 10] \Downarrow [7; 9; -6]$$

$$\frac{e_1 \Downarrow v_1 \quad e_2 \Downarrow v_2 \quad v = v_1 * v_2}{e_1 * e_2 \Downarrow v}$$

$$\frac{e_1 \Downarrow v_1 \quad e_2 \Downarrow v_2 \quad v = v_1 + v_2}{e_1 + e_2 \Downarrow v}$$

$$\frac{e_1 \Downarrow v_1 \quad e_2 \Downarrow v_2 \quad \dots \quad e_n \Downarrow v_n}{[e_1; e_2; \dots e_n] \Downarrow [v_1; v_2; \dots v_n]}$$

Example of Semantics

8

$$\begin{array}{c}
 \begin{array}{ccc}
 2 \Downarrow 2 & 5 \Downarrow 5 & 7 = 2 + 5 \\
 \hline
 2 + 5 \Downarrow 7
 \end{array}
 &
 \begin{array}{ccc}
 3 \Downarrow 3 & 3 \Downarrow 3 & 9 = 3 * 3 \\
 \hline
 3 * 3 \Downarrow 9
 \end{array}
 &
 4 - 10 \Downarrow -6 \\
 \hline
 [2 + 5; 3 * 3; 4 - 10] \Downarrow [7; 9; -6]
 \end{array}$$

$$\frac{e_1 \Downarrow v_1 \quad e_2 \Downarrow v_2 \quad v = v_1 * v_2}{e_1 * e_2 \Downarrow v}$$

$$\frac{e_1 \Downarrow v_1 \quad e_2 \Downarrow v_2 \quad v = v_1 + v_2}{e_1 + e_2 \Downarrow v}$$

$$\frac{e_1 \Downarrow v_1 \quad e_2 \Downarrow v_2 \quad \dots \quad e_n \Downarrow v_n}{[e_1; e_2; \dots e_n] \Downarrow [v_1; v_2; \dots v_n]}$$

Example of Semantics

8

$$\begin{array}{c}
 \begin{array}{ccc}
 2 \Downarrow 2 & 5 \Downarrow 5 & 7 = 2 + 5 \\
 \hline
 2 + 5 \Downarrow 7
 \end{array}
 &
 \begin{array}{ccc}
 3 \Downarrow 3 & 3 \Downarrow 3 & 9 = 3 * 3 \\
 \hline
 3 * 3 \Downarrow 9
 \end{array}
 &
 4 - 10 \Downarrow -6 \\
 \hline
 [2 + 5; 3 * 3; 4 - 10] \Downarrow [7; 9; -6]
 \end{array}$$

$$\frac{e_1 \Downarrow v_1 \quad e_2 \Downarrow v_2 \quad v = v_1 * v_2}{e_1 * e_2 \Downarrow v}$$

$$\frac{e_1 \Downarrow v_1 \quad e_2 \Downarrow v_2 \quad v = v_1 + v_2}{e_1 + e_2 \Downarrow v}$$

$$\frac{e_1 \Downarrow v_1 \quad e_2 \Downarrow v_2 \quad \dots \quad e_n \Downarrow v_n}{[e_1; e_2; \dots e_n] \Downarrow [v_1; v_2; \dots v_n]}$$

$$\frac{e_1 \Downarrow v_1 \quad e_2 \Downarrow v_2 \quad v = v_1 - v_2}{e_1 - e_2 \Downarrow v}$$

Example of Semantics

8

$$\begin{array}{c}
 \begin{array}{ccc}
 2 \Downarrow 2 & 5 \Downarrow 5 & 7 = 2 + 5 \\
 \hline
 2 + 5 \Downarrow 7
 \end{array}
 &
 \begin{array}{ccc}
 3 \Downarrow 3 & 3 \Downarrow 3 & 9 = 3 * 3 \\
 \hline
 3 * 3 \Downarrow 9
 \end{array}
 &
 \begin{array}{ccc}
 4 \Downarrow 4 & 10 \Downarrow 10 & -6 = 4 - 10 \\
 \hline
 4 - 10 \Downarrow -6
 \end{array}
 \\
 \hline
 [2 + 5; 3 * 3; 4 - 10] \Downarrow [7; 9; -6]
 \end{array}$$

$$\begin{array}{c}
 e_1 \Downarrow v_1 \quad e_2 \Downarrow v_2 \quad v = v_1 * v_2 \\
 \hline
 e_1 * e_2 \Downarrow v
 \end{array}$$

$$\begin{array}{c}
 e_1 \Downarrow v_1 \quad e_2 \Downarrow v_2 \quad v = v_1 + v_2 \\
 \hline
 e_1 + e_2 \Downarrow v
 \end{array}$$

$$\begin{array}{c}
 e_1 \Downarrow v_1 \quad e_2 \Downarrow v_2 \quad \dots \quad e_n \Downarrow v_n \\
 \hline
 [e_1; e_2; \dots e_n] \Downarrow [v_1; v_2; \dots v_n]
 \end{array}$$

$$\begin{array}{c}
 e_1 \Downarrow v_1 \quad e_2 \Downarrow v_2 \quad v = v_1 - v_2 \\
 \hline
 e_1 - e_2 \Downarrow v
 \end{array}$$

How do we use Lists?

9

- ▶ So far, we have seen how to construct lists
- ▶ But, how do we use lists? (there's no point building them if we can't use them)
- ▶ To use lists, we go back to our new best friend: pattern matching
- ▶ Remember, lists have two possibilities: '**nil**' (or **[]**) and '**cons**' (or ***h* :: *t***) where ***h*** is the head of the list and ***t*** is the tail of the list
- ▶ **match** **<expr>** **with**
 - | **[]** **->** **<expr>**
 - | ***h* :: *t*** **->** **<expr>**
 - | **.....**

Example: Length of a List

10

```
'a list -> int
let rec length lst =
  match lst with
  | [] -> 0
  | h::t -> 1 + (length t)
```

- ▶ If the list is empty, i.e., `[]`, then return `0`
- ▶ Else, add `1` to the length of `t`
- ▶ Note the type: what is `'a list`?

Polymorphic Type of List

11

- ▶ What should be the type of `list`?
- ▶ Should it be `int list`? Or `bool list`? Or something else?
- ▶ Technically, it can be `α list` for any type `α`
- ▶ In OCaml, this is written as `'a list`
- ▶ These functions are called polymorphic functions (similar to generics in Java, etc.)
- ▶ These functions are defined for all types and can be used at any type.

Polymorphic Functions

12

- ▶ This length function can be applied to any argument
- ▶ `length [1; 2; 3] = 3`
`length [4.; 1.; 2.; 5.] = 4`
`length ["cs320", "cs599"] = 2`
- ▶ In fact, they only need to be defined once and can be called with different types without defining them individually for each type
- ▶ This makes them powerful! They are crucial for data structures like stacks, queues, trees that can store arbitrary data

Example: Sum of a List

13

```
int list -> int
let rec sum lst =
  match lst with
  | [] -> 0
  | h::t -> h + sum t
```

- ▶ If the list is empty, i.e., `[]`, then return `0`
- ▶ Else, add `h` to the sum of `t`
- ▶ *Challenge: Write a function that can sum up an arbitrary list type*

- ▶ Like every type so far, lists are also immutable
- ▶ We create new lists from the older list
- ▶ For example:

```
int list -> int list
let rec inc lst =
  match lst with
  | [] -> []
  | h::t -> (h+1)::(inc t)
```

- ▶ Calling **inc** does not mutate the argument

Formal Typing Rule for Pattern Match

15

$$\frac{\Gamma \vdash e : \tau \text{ list} \quad \Gamma \vdash e_1 : \tau' \quad \Gamma, h : \tau, t : \tau \text{ list} \vdash e_2 : \tau'}{\Gamma \vdash \text{match } e \text{ with } [] \rightarrow e_1 \mid h :: t \rightarrow e_2 : \tau'}$$

- ▶ e must have type $\tau \text{ list}$
- ▶ Each branch should have the same type: e_1 has type τ'
- ▶ For the second branch, add $h : \tau$ and $t : \tau \text{ list}$ to the context
- ▶ In this context, e_2 must have type τ'

$$\frac{e \Downarrow [] \quad e_1 \Downarrow v_1}{(\text{match } e \text{ with } [] \rightarrow e_1 \mid h :: t \rightarrow e_2) \Downarrow v_1}$$

$$\frac{e \Downarrow (v :: vs) \quad [v/h] [vs/t] e_2 \Downarrow v_2}{(\text{match } e \text{ with } [] \rightarrow e_1 \mid h :: t \rightarrow e_2) \Downarrow v_2}$$

- ▶ Since $e : \tau \text{ list}$, it can either evaluate to an empty list or a non-empty list (*a consequence of preservation*)
- ▶ First rule handles empty case, Second rule handles non-empty case

Patterns can be Deep

17

► `match <expr> with`

| `[] -> <expr>`

| `[h1; h2] -> <expr>`

| `h1::h2::t -> <expr>`

| `h::t -> <expr>`

| `.....`

Patterns can be Deep

17

► match <expr> with

| [] -> <expr>

[] for empty list

| [h1; h2] -> <expr>

| h1::h2::t -> <expr>

| h::t -> <expr>

|

Patterns can be Deep

► match <expr> with

| [] -> <expr>

[] for empty list

| [h1; h2] -> <expr>

[h1; h2] for a list of
size exactly 2

| h1::h2::t -> <expr>

| h::t -> <expr>

|

Patterns can be Deep

► match <expr> with

| [] -> <expr>

[] for empty list

| [h1; h2] -> <expr>

[h1; h2] for a list of
size exactly 2

| h1::h2::t -> <expr>

h1::h2::t for a list
of size at least 2

| h::t -> <expr>

|

Patterns can be Deep

17

► match <expr> with

| [] -> <expr>

[] for empty list

| [h1; h2] -> <expr>

[h1; h2] for a list of
size exactly 2

| h1::h2::t -> <expr>

h1::h2::t for a list
of size at least 2

| h::t -> <expr>

h::t for a list of
size at least 1

|

There's Nothing Special about Lists

- ▶ Recall that programmers can define their own types in OCaml
- ▶ List is just one such type; can be defined as follows:

```
type intlist =  
  | Nil  
  | Cons of int * intlist
```

- ▶ This is a data-carrying variant; a value of list type can either be **Nil** or **Cons** of an integer (head) and another list (tail)
- ▶ The built-in list type just uses **[]** for **Nil** and **::** for **Cons**

Creating Lists

```
type intlist =  
  | Nil  
  | Cons of int * intlist
```

- ▶ Empty list can be created using:

```
intlist  
let x = Nil
```

- ▶ Bigger lists can be created using:

```
intlist  
let x = Cons (1, (Cons (2, (Cons (3, Nil))))))
```

▶ `match <expr> with`
 `| Nil -> <expr>`
 `| Cons(h, t) -> <expr>`
 `|`

▶ What should be the typing rule?

$$\frac{\Gamma \vdash e : \text{int list} \quad \Gamma \vdash e_1 : \tau' \quad \Gamma, h : \text{int}, t : \text{int list} \vdash e_2 : \tau'}{\Gamma \vdash \text{match } e \text{ with Nil} \rightarrow e_1 \mid \text{Cons}(h, t) \rightarrow e_2 : \tau'}$$

▶ *Homework: Write down the semantics rules for this expression*

Patterns Can Still be Deeeeeeep

21

- ▶ `match <expr> with`
 - | `Nil -> <expr>`
 - | `Cons(h, Nil) -> <expr>`
 - | `Cons(h1, Cons(h2, Nil)) -> <expr>`
 - | `Cons(h1, Cons(h2, t)) -> <expr>`
 - | `Cons(h, t) -> <expr>`
 - | `.....`

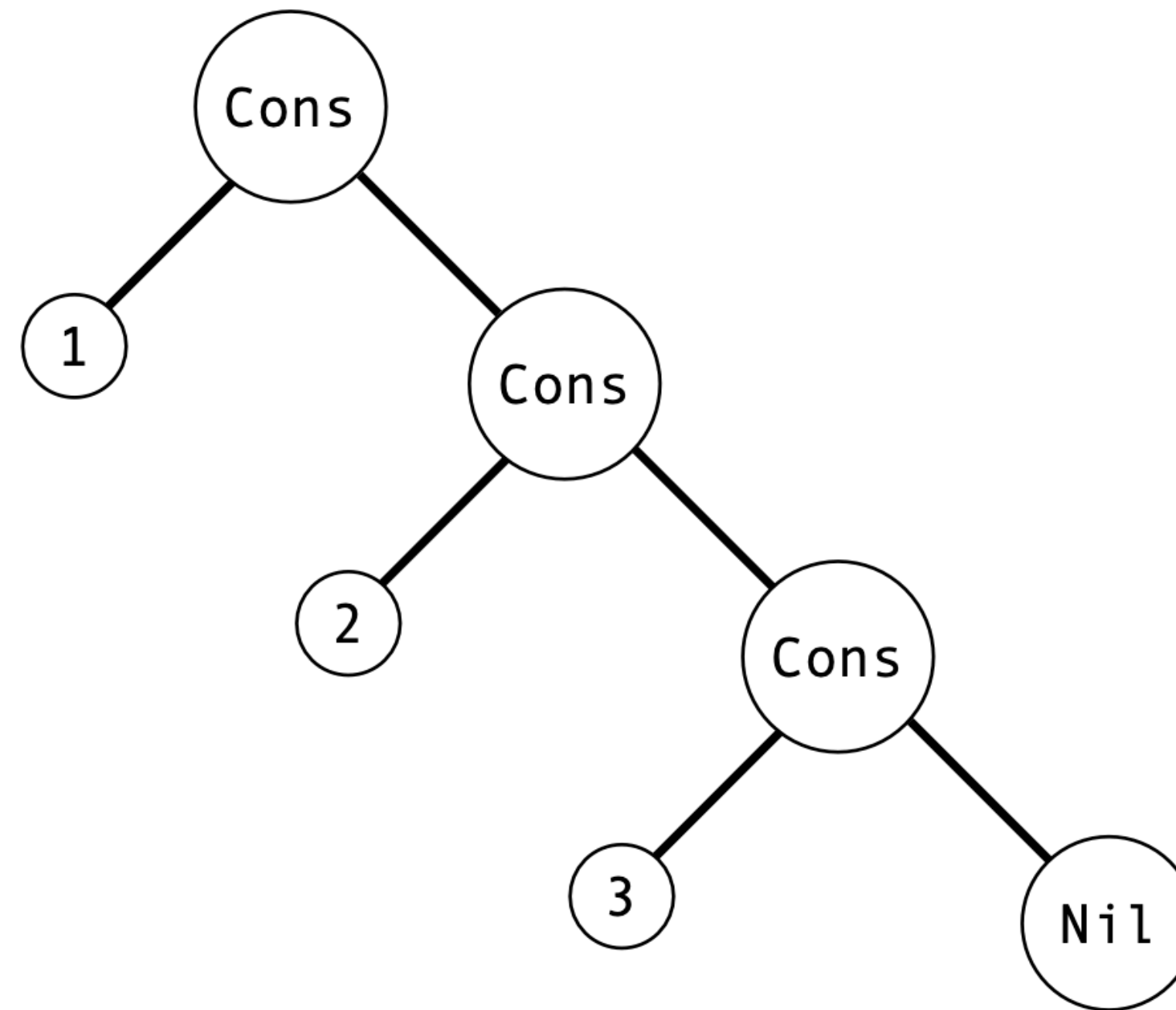
- ▶ *Homework: Write down the typing and semantics rules for this expression*

Pictorial Representation

22

intlist

```
let x = Cons (1, (Cons (2, (Cons (3, Nil)))))
```



We can also use Recursive Records

```
type intlist = { head : int; tail : intlist }
```

- ▶ But I don't like this representation. Tell me why?
- ▶ How do you represent an empty list?
- ▶ How about this instead? Types can also be mutually recursive

```
type intlist = { head : int; tail : intlist_option }  
  
and intlist_option =  
  | None  
  | Some of intlist
```


How to Represent All Lists?

24

- ▶ The answer is *polymorphism*!
- ▶ Like functions, types can also be polymorphic
- ▶ Main idea: element inside a list can be of “*any*” type; “*any*” types are represented using *'a*, *'b*, *'c*,
- ▶ Let's do some examples!

```
type 'a list =  
  | Nil  
  | Cons of 'a * 'a list
```

```
int list  
let x = Cons (1, Cons (2, Nil))
```

Creating Specific Typed Lists

25

```
type 'a list =  
  | Nil  
  | Cons of 'a * 'a list
```

```
int list  
let x = Cons (1, Cons (2, Nil))
```

```
string list  
let y = Cons ("One", Cons ("Two", Nil))
```

```
float list  
let z = Cons (1., Cons (2., Nil))
```

Defining Polymorphic Functions

26

```
type 'a list =  
  | Nil  
  | Cons of 'a * 'a list
```

```
'a list -> int  
let rec length lst =  
  match lst with  
  | Nil -> 0  
  | Cons(_, t) -> 1 + length t
```

Defining Polymorphic Functions

```
type 'a list =  
  | Nil  
  | Cons of 'a * 'a list
```

```
'a list -> int  
let rec length lst =  
  match lst with  
  | Nil -> 0  
  | Cons(_, t) -> 1 + length t
```

```
'a list -> 'a list  
let rec swap2 lst =  
  match lst with  
  | Nil -> Nil  
  | Cons(h1, Cons(h2, t)) -> Cons (h2, Cons (h1, swap2 t))  
  | Cons(h, Nil) -> Cons(h, Nil)
```

Can Size be Polymorphic?

27

```
type 'a list =  
  | Nil  
  | Cons of 'a * 'a list
```

```
let rec sum lst =  
  match lst with  
  | Nil ->  
  | Cons(h, t) ->
```

Can Size be Polymorphic?

27

```
type 'a list =  
  | Nil  
  | Cons of 'a * 'a list
```

```
let rec sum lst =  
  match lst with  
  | Nil -> zero  
  | Cons(h, t) ->
```

Can Size be Polymorphic?

27

```
type 'a list =  
  | Nil  
  | Cons of 'a * 'a list
```

```
let rec sum lst zero =  
  match lst with  
  | Nil -> zero  
  | Cons(h, t) ->
```

Can Size be Polymorphic?

```
type 'a list =  
  | Nil  
  | Cons of 'a * 'a list
```

```
let rec sum lst zero add =  
  match lst with  
  | Nil -> zero  
  | Cons(h, t) ->
```


Can Size be Polymorphic?

27

```
type 'a list =  
  | Nil  
  | Cons of 'a * 'a list
```

```
let rec sum lst zero add =  
  match lst with  
  | Nil -> zero  
  | Cons(h, t) -> add h (sum t zero add)
```

Can Size be Polymorphic?

27

```
type 'a list =  
  | Nil  
  | Cons of 'a * 'a list
```

```
'a list -> 'b -> ('a -> 'b -> 'b) -> 'b  
let rec sum lst zero add =  
  match lst with  
  | Nil -> zero  
  | Cons(h, t) -> add h (sum t zero add)
```

Can Size be Polymorphic?

27

```
type 'a list =  
  | Nil  
  | Cons of 'a * 'a list
```

```
'a list -> 'b -> ('a -> 'b -> 'b) -> 'b  
let rec sum lst zero add =  
  match lst with  
  | Nil -> zero  
  | Cons(h, t) -> add h (sum t zero add)
```

```
int -> int -> int  
let add_int a b = a + b
```

```
int list -> int  
let sum_int lst = sum lst 0 add_int
```

Can Size be Polymorphic?

27

```
type 'a list =  
  | Nil  
  | Cons of 'a * 'a list
```

```
'a list -> 'b -> ('a -> 'b -> 'b) -> 'b  
let rec sum lst zero add =  
  match lst with  
  | Nil -> zero  
  | Cons(h, t) -> add h (sum t zero add)
```

```
int -> int -> int  
let add_int a b = a + b
```

```
int list -> int  
let sum_int lst = sum lst 0 add_int
```

```
float -> float -> float  
let add_float a b = a +. b
```

```
float list -> float  
let sum_float lst = sum lst 0. add_float
```

More Polymorphic Types

28

```
type 'a option =  
  | None  
  | Some of 'a
```

```
'a list -> 'a option  
let head lst =  
  match lst with  
  | Nil -> None  
  | Cons(h, _) -> Some h
```

- ▶ This may or may not hold a value; useful when not all inputs have a valid output; like the head function cannot return a value when list is empty
- ▶ Some people use *null pointers* for this. Please don't EVER use null pointers
- ▶ Null pointers were called the “*billion-dollar mistake*” by Tony Hoare, the person who invented them

Generalization of Option Type

29

```
type ('a, 'e) result =  
  | Ok of 'a  
  | Err of 'e
```

```
'a list -> ('a, string) result  
let head lst =  
  match lst with  
  | Nil -> Err "Empty list has no head"  
  | Cons(h, _) -> Ok h
```

- ▶ Polymorphic types can have multiple parameters
- ▶ Allows users to return a result or an error message

- ▶ Some recursive functions can be made *tail recursive*
- ▶ What is tail recursive?
- ▶ A recursive function is tail recursive when you do not perform any computation on the result of the recursive call
- ▶

```
let rec factorial n =  
  if n = 0 then 1 else n * factorial (n-1)
```
- ▶ *Not Tail Recursive*: The result of the recursive call to factorial is multiplied with “n”
- ▶ Can it be made tail recursive? Yes!


```
int -> int
let factorial n =
  let rec fact_helper n acc =
    if n = 0 then acc else fact_helper (n-1) (acc*n)
  in
  fact_helper n 1
```

- ▶ Make the result another argument
- ▶ **acc** (short for accumulator) stores the result of factorial; when **n** reaches **0**, we simply return **acc**
- ▶ In the else branch, the recursive call is directly returned


```
'a list -> 'a list
let rev lst =
  let rec rev_helper lst acc =
    match lst with
    | Nil -> acc
    | Cons(h, t) -> rev_helper t (Cons(h, acc))
  in
  rev_helper lst Nil
```

- ▶ Can every recursive function be made tail recursive? Theoretically speaking, yes! There is an entire PL theory called “*Continuation Passing Style*” based on this. Much harder in practice though
- ▶ *Homework: Use reverse to implement list append using tail recursion*

- ▶ Read about records
- ▶ Practice as many typing derivations and semantics derivations as you can! Please!
- ▶ Write out the typing rules for other destructors for tuples
- ▶ Read OCP 3.1, 3.7