

OCaml III: Unions and Products

CAS CS 320: Principles of Programming Languages

January 30, 2024

Outline

Début

Variants (Unions)

Tuples and Records (Products)

Fin

- ▶ Homework 1 is due on *Thursday by 11:59PM*. This assignment is graded.
- ▶ Discussions will be held this week to practice the material we saw last week.
- ▶ Please talk to me ASAP if you require accommodations for this course.

Today

Examine the notions of `unions` and `products` and see how these can be used to model data in complex programs.

Start to look more carefully at `patterns` and `pattern matching`.

Keywords

- ▶ variants
- ▶ unions
- ▶ pattern matching
- ▶ variable patterns
- ▶ wildcards
- ▶ tuples
- ▶ records
- ▶ products
- ▶ fields
- ▶ accessors
- ▶ record updates

Reap Problem

What is the value of v ?

```
let v =  
  let rec f x = g (x + 1)  
    and g x = 1 + h (x - 1)  
    and h x = if x < 0 then 0 else f (x - 2)  
  in f 8
```

1. 0
2. 6
3. 8
4. No value

Solution

```
f 8      (* ==> *);;  
g 9      (* ==> *);;  
1 + h 8   (* ==> *);;  
1 + f 6   (* ==> *);;  
2 + f 4   (* ==> *);;  
3 + f 2   (* ==> *);;  
4 + f 0   (* ==> *);;  
5 + f (-2) (* ==> *);;  
6 + h (-2) (* ==> *);;  
6        (* fin *);;
```

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Enum-Like Variants

A variant is a type for values of a **fixed set of possibilities**. Simple variants are similar to `enum`'s in Java.

Example.

```
type myunit = Unit
type mybool = True | False
```

- ▶ `myunit` is called a variant. `Unit` is called a tag or a constructor.
- ▶ user-defined variants are **lowercase**, constructors are **Uppercase**.

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Enum-Like Variants: Syntax and Semantics

Syntax.

```
type t = Const_1 | Const_2 | ... | Const_n
```

Dynamics Semantics. *There is none.* This is the point. `Const_i` is a **value** by definition.

Static Semantics. If `t` is defined as

```
type t = ... | C | ...
```

then `C : t`. That is, every **constructor** of a variant `t` is **of type t**.

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Pattern Matching with Variants

Working with a variant means writing “what you want” for **each constructor**. In OCaml, this means using a **match expression**.

Example:

```
type my_bool = True | False

let my_not b =
  match b with
  | True -> False
  | False -> True

let _ = assert (my_not True = False)
```

This is sometimes called **destructing**.

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Patterns

Patterns are **typed templates** for how a piece of data should look.

Terminology. In the expression below, we match **on** an expression **e** and the **value** of **e** matches **with** the pattern **p**.

```
match e with  
| p -> o  
...
```

Important. A pattern is *not* the same thing as a value or an expression.

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Matching with a Pattern

For every type we have to specify:

- ▶ What are the patterns of that type (i.e., what kind of patterns can match its values)?
- ▶ How do values of a given type match with patterns of a given type?

There are **general** patterns which work for any type:

- ▶ Constants
- ▶ Variables
- ▶ Wildcards

Note. We can pattern match on *any* type in OCaml.

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Note. We can pattern match on *any* type in OCaml.

General Patterns: Constants

Any **value** (also called a **constant**) is a valid pattern. A value matches with a constant pattern if it is equal.

Example:

```
let is_seven_or_eleven n =  
  match n with  
  | 7 -> true  
  | 11 -> true  
  | _ -> false
```

General Patterns: Constants

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General Patterns: Variables

A **variable** can be used as **named default** pattern. A variable matches any value.

Example.

```
let rec fib n =  
  match n with  
  | 0 -> 1  
  | 1 -> 1  
  | k -> fib (k - 1) + fib (k - 2)
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General Patterns: Variables

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let rec fib n =  
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General Patterns: Wildcards

An **wildcard** (written as an underscore `_`) can be used as an **unnamed default** pattern. A wildcard matches any value.

Example:

```
type day = M | T | W | Th | F | S | Su

let is_weekend d =
  match d with
  | S -> true
  | Su -> true
  | _ -> false
```

General Patterns: Wildcards

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```

Match Expressions: General Syntax

Given the expressions e , e_1 , e_2 , ..., e_k and patterns p_1, \dots, p_k , we can write the following expression.

General Match Expression:

```
match e with  
| p_1 -> e_1  
| p_2 -> e_2  
...  
| p_k -> e_k
```


Match Expressions: Dynamic Semantics

General Match Expression:

```
match e with (* referred to as `m` below *)  
| p_1 -> e_1  
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| p_k -> e_k
```

- ▶ If e evaluates to v and
- ▶ v matches with p_i and
- ▶ p_i is the **first** pattern v matches with, and
- ▶ e_i evaluates to w then
- ▶ m evaluates to w .

Match Expressions: Dynamic Semantics

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- ▶ If e is of type t and
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Examples

What does `e` evaluate to?

```
let e = match true with  
| true -> 1  
| false -> 0
```

1. `0 : int`
2. `1 : int`
3. No value
4. Syntax error

Examples

What does `e` evaluate to?

```
let f x = x mod 3
let e = match f 13 with
  0 -> 1
  1 -> 0
  _ -> assert false
```

1. `0 : int`
2. `1 : int`
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Examples

What does `e` evaluate to?

```
let x = 10
let e = match 11 with
| x ->
  (match x with
   | 10 -> 0
   | 11 -> 1
   | i -> i)
| _ -> assert false
```

1. `0 : int`
2. `1 : int`
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Practical Example: Mime Types

Example:

```
module Type = struct
type t =
  | Text
  | Image
  | Audio
  | Video
  | Application
  | Message
  | Multipart
```

Attachments in an email are labeled with `mime types` which describe what kind of file the attachment it is.

If you want to build an representation of mime types in OCaml, you can use a simple variant.

Question

Implement the function `after_day` of type `day -> int -> day` which, given a day `d` and integer `i` returns the day which is `i` days after `d`.

Starter:

```
type day = M | T | W | Th | F | S | Su

let after_day (d : day) (i : int) : day =
  assert false (* TODO *)

let _ = assert (after_day W 17 = F)
let _ = assert (after_day W (-1) = T)
```

Data-Carrying Variants

Constructors of a variant can also hold data of other types.

Example:

```
type int_or_string =  
  | Int of int  
  | String of string  
  
let two_in_box : int_or_string = Int 2
```

We will talk a lot more about this next week when we cover algebraic data types.

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Patterns for Data-Carrying Variants

Example:

```
let int_of_int_or_string x =  
  match x with  
  | Int n -> n  
  | String s -> int_of_string s  
  
let _ = assert (int_of_int_or_string (Int 2) = 2)  
let _ = assert (int_of_int_or_string (String "2") = 2)
```

New Pattern Rules.

- ▶ If C is a constructor for t which carries something of type S , and p is a pattern for S , then $C\ p$ is a pattern of type t .
- ▶ $C\ p$ matches $C\ v$ if v matches p .

Patterns for Data-Carrying Variants

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What does this have to do with unions?

The **union** of two collections A and B is the collection of objects in A or B .

It's not hard to envisage this type as the “union” of the types `string` and `int`.

```
type int_or_string =  
  | Int of int  
  | String of string  
  
let two_int : int_or_string = Int 2  
let two_str : int_or_string = String "two"
```

(If you squint.)

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Tuples should be familiar

Tuples are ordered fixed-length collections of unnamed data.

Example:

```
let point : float * float = (2.0, 3.0)
let student : string * int = ("Franco", 244342)
```

They are useful for *small* “packets” of data whose individual pieces are not ambiguous.

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Tuples: Syntax

Given expressions e_1, e_2, \dots, e_k , we have the expression

(e_1, e_2, \dots, e_k)

Given types t_1, t_2, \dots, t_k , we have the type

$t_1 * t_2 * \dots * t_k$

Tuples: Dynamic Semantics

General Tuple Syntax:

`(e_1, e_2, ..., e_k)` (* referred to as `e` below *)

- ▶ If `e_1` evaluates to `v_1` and
- ▶ `e_2` evaluates to `v_2` and
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Note. There are no accessors for tuples.

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Example

Euclidean Distance:

```
let dist p q =  
  match p with  
  | (x1, y1) ->  
    match q with  
    | (x2, y2) ->  
      let x_diff = x1 -. x2 in  
      let y_diff = y1 -. y2 in  
      sqrt (x_diff *. x_diff +. y_diff *. y_diff)
```

In reality, this is not how you'd write this function, let's demo the correct way.

Pattern Matching in Function Arguments

We can use **patterns as arguments** to functions instead of just names.

Example.

```
let dist (x1, y1) (x2, y2) =  
  let xd = x1 -. x2 in  
  let yd = y1 -. y2 in  
  sqrt (xd *. xd +. yd *. yd)
```

Records

Records are unordered fixed-length collections of named data.

Example:

```
type point = { x_cord : float ; y_cord : float }  
let origin : point = { x_cord = 0. ; y_cord = 0. }
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They are useful for organizing larger collections of related data.

Records

Records are unordered fixed-length collections of named data.

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Records: Syntax

- ▶ Given fields f_1, f_2, \dots, f_k and
- ▶ expressions e_1, e_2, \dots, e_k and
- ▶ types t_1, t_2, \dots, t_k we have the expression

```
{ f_1 = e_1 ;  
  f_2 = e_2 ;  
  ...  
  f_k = e_k ;  
}
```

and the type

```
{ f_1 : t_1 ;  
  f_2 : t_2 ;  
  ...  
  f_k : t_k ;  
}
```

I won't dwell on this one. Its similar to the case of tuples.

See the textbook for more details.

Accessors

Records *do* have accessors. We can use **dot-notation**.

Example:

```
type point = { x_cord : float ; y_cord : float }  
  
let dist (p : point) (q : point) =  
  let xd = p.x_cord -. q.x_cord in  
  let yd = p.y_cord -. q.y_cord in  
  sqrt (xd *. xd +. yd *. yd)
```

It's **less common** to pattern match on records because they can often be quite large (though it is still possible).

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Practical Example

Managing Users:

```
type userType = Beginner | Editor | Visitor | Moderator
```

```
type user = {  
  name : string ;  
  email : string ;  
  num_posts : int ;  
  ty : userType ;  
}
```

```
let init_user name email vis : user = {  
  name = name ;  
  email = email ;  
  num_posts = 0 ;  
  ty = if vis then Visitor else Beginner ;  
}
```


Record Updates

Since we often only care about changing a **small portion** of a record, there is **record-update** syntax for doing this.

Example:

```
let update_name u new_name new_email : user =  
  { u with name = new_name ; email = new_email }  
  
let new_post u : user =  
  { u with num_posts = u.num_posts + 1 }
```

- ▶ We read { u with ... } as “the record u but with ... changed”.
- ▶ Remember, we are in the functional paradigm. We can’t **actually update** records, we always return a new record.

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What does this have to do with products?

The product of two collections A and B is the set of **ordered pairs** (a,b) where a comes from A and b comes from B .

The relation with tuples is obvious.

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type int_times_string = int * string
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```

Question

Write a function `to_polar` of type `point -> p_coord` which converts a point in Cartesian coordinates to one in polar coordinates. The functions `atan` and `sqrt` may be useful here.

Starter:

```
type point = { x : float ; y : float }  
type p_coord = { d : float ; ang : float }  
  
let to_polar (p : point) = (* TODO *)
```

Outline

Début

Variants (Unions)

Tuples and Records (Products)

Fin

Summary

`Variants` can be used to create a type whose values may be `one of many` kinds of things.

`Patterns` and `match statements` are used to work with those multiple kinds of things.

`Tuples` and `records` can be used to create types whose values contain `many things in a single package`. This is useful for organizing data.